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Current Aspects of U.S.-Canadian Relations

by Deputy Under Secretary Murphy¹

Let me say that conferences such as this are one of the key bases on which American foreign policy is founded. As you know, the impact of public opinion on the policymakers of our Government is often a main consideration when a choice between two nearly equal courses of action must be made. It is the catalyst which provides direction in our conduct of foreign affairs.

In meeting with our Canadian friends it is obviously not necessary to say that relations between Canada and the United States are not confined to matters involving our common border and to the other immediate necessities and direct concerns of our two countries resulting from life together in the northern part of this hemisphere. Far from it. As the world has grown smaller and as Canadian and United States interests have of necessity come to be projected abroad on an ever-widening scale, both play roles of increasing importance on the world stage. We have both accepted wider responsibilities in this process, and it is our good fortune that, in crossing the oceans to other areas and other circumstances, we have been able in our broader activities to maintain unimpaired that mutual trust and the understanding cooperation which characterizes our relations here at home.

Canada and the United States fought shoulder to shoulder in the two great world wars of this century, and those searing experiences are burned deep in the fiber of our relationship. We joined together with others at San Francisco in 1945 to create the United Nations, and we have both taken active parts in that organization and in the framework it provides for efforts all around the globe in the cause of peace and human betterment. We have recently pioneered together in Korea in that

historic collective action against armed aggression, and together we are striving to overcome the frustrations that have plagued a final settlement of that tortuous problem.

Today we both are working at hard jobs in Southeast Asia. Canada serves with distinction as a member of the International Control Commission, formed as a result of the Geneva Conference of 1954 to supervise the armistice terms in Indochina. The United States carries in that area its own heavy responsibilities.

Through the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations and other agencies we are associated with Canada in the great work of peaceful development of national resources and the improvement of living standards around the world. Then there is the Colombo Plan, originally devised by nations of the British Commonwealth for mutual self-help in the field of economic development in the Asian and Pacific areas and later expanded to include other non-Commonwealth countries in that part of the world. Here again Canada and the United States work together, in both private enterprise and public fields of endeavor, for a widening prosperity.

If there is a difference between us perhaps it is one of size. The United States happens by force of circumstances to have grown big and, I should add, powerful. Bigness and power are not always conducive to peace of mind and tranquillity. In world politics they carry with them at times unwelcome and onerous responsibilities. The very possession of great power generates occasionally suspicions and anxieties on the part of other nations as to what we may do with it. They know that errors of judgment in the control and use of that power might entail damaging or even fatal results to others. There is no doubt that the present power of the United States carries with it

¹Address made before the Canada-U.S. Conference at the University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y., on Sept. 1 (press release 524).

grave responsibilities in world affairs. I think I can say with assurance that today's leadership in the United States is acutely aware of our obligations to other nations. That leadership, it seems to me, is giving constant proof of devotion to an international ideal which is both practical and enlightened. Fortunately our Canadian friends know us so well that the same doubts and anxieties to which I refer hardly apply. At times, our friends may think of us as impulsive, or prejudiced, or belligerent, or lacking in understanding of the problems and difficulties of other world areas. It would not be safe to assert that individually we may not be all those things. But today United States foreign policy is a carefully distilled product of the best judgment of a number of able men under the guidance of two who are especially qualified, our President and our Secretary of State. The development of United States foreign policy, and the close association of our Congress in that development, is a demonstration of practical democracy at work, in happy contrast to totalitarian systems where the caprice of a dictator can lead and has led unfortunate peoples to disaster. Nowhere is there displayed a greater consciousness of the wisdom of Lord Acton's oft-quoted adage, "All power corrupts and absolute power corrupts absolutely." Our form of democracy provides safeguards in the management of our foreign affairs which mutually benefit both Canada and the United States.

You are probably tired of being told that Canada and the United States enjoy unique relationships. Yet I must remind you of this fact, particularly when we turn to the interaction of our respective policies in various fields. Anyone who is not intimately involved may have to search fairly hard to find typical examples of how policy—as between Canada and the United States—is made. The apparent ease with which we carry on our intercourse provides a somewhat deceptive camouflage.

For example, the laws and other domestic arrangements of each country really have a constant tendency to clash. They are kept from conflicts not merely by a border line but by the constant and untiring efforts of officials on both sides to see them reconciled and to make necessary adjustments without transgressing the spirit of the laws. Foreign policy, as between Canada and the United States, is sometimes evolved through the piecing together of many day-to-day solutions.

But policies thus developed tend to be more down to earth than would be the case if the two countries were separated by thousands of miles. There is somewhat less dependence on theory and more on the practical tests provided by hundreds of daily-intercourse items calling for immediate attention. Policy, the queen of diplomacy, seems to be more the result than the cause of these numerous adjustments.

Permanent Joint Board on Defense

There is probably no better example of the basic simplicity of approach existing between Canada and the United States than the Permanent Joint Board on Defense. It was established in August 1940. Those were the days when certain European dictators were meeting each other ostentatiously with all the panoply of propaganda that could be mustered, causing the world on each occasion to wonder what new shock was in the offing.

One fine day, Prime Minister Mackenzie King and President Roosevelt had a quiet chat in a railroad car at Ogdensburg concerning the problem of continental defense. It was an illustration of how democracies, despite all their constitutional limitations, could allow their leaders to meet informally to discuss a subject of common concern for the purpose of doing something about it. The result of this Ogdensburg meeting was a simple declaration which brought the Board into being.

Our leaders entered into no contractual obligation, and the net effect of their deliberations, although firmer than ever, could be dissolved overnight by either side. Nevertheless, what they defined, with a brush as broad as that used by a housepainter, has been the basis of a far-reaching program for the defense of North America. Today this program has great ramifications on both sides of the border and has guided the investment of hundreds of millions of dollars by both countries in a joint defense system that is constantly growing in efficiency.

Obviously, this was not all thought out in detail before the Ogdensburg Declaration. However, the need was so obvious at the time, and the program continues to be so sane a form of insurance, that there was, and is, no alternative except the dictates of mutual self-interest. The PJB, in turn, has led to the creation of other binational groups and committees devoted to various technical aspects of the same subject.

Now, I don't want to leave the impression that joint organizations like the PJBO represent one long rapturous friendship. There have been sharp words thrown across the table at times and some tough decisions to consider. Nor have matters been worked out in an aura of oratory or high-pressure salesmanship. Neither side has ever tried overly hard to persuade the other on any point. Planning is too uncertain a venture for that.

What both sides attempt is to make sure that no corner of their task remains unexplored. Opinions are then compared and a sincere effort made to come as close as possible to a single line. This is a matter of principle. Furthermore, there is a tradition never to record disagreements. The latter are merely set aside for a more propitious occasion.

Economic Cooperation

The effort of Canada and the United States to live together in the economic field has also received a decided impetus in the past 15 years. I am not referring to the great flow of private investment which has done so much toward the enrichment of both economies. I am speaking now of cooperation at the official level.

Since the war, further emphasis has been placed upon the joint utilization of resources and related objectives. The principles laid down in this direction have been reaffirmed formally on two occasions and informally in many other ways. One outstanding example was the close work done together in facilitating the exchange of strategic materials during the Korean crisis. Another has been the program of reciprocal procurement in the military field. Under this program, each side has purchased military stores and equipment from the other, in more or less even value from year to year, with a view to avoiding a preponderance of imports on either side. This has made possible a degree of standardization in the materiel of each country's military forces.

In a few weeks from now, as you know, the Joint Committee on Trade and Economic Affairs will have its annual meeting in Ottawa for discussions of economic matters between Cabinet officials of our two countries.

This is only one of a long series of visits by high officials back and forth across the border, some of them less heralded than others. Their purposes have been varied, but underlying everything has

been the desire of those involved to see their counterparts at first hand for the sake of better understanding. What they learn in this way cannot fail to influence the direction which they must give to policy. In many respects, it is no exaggeration to say that our respective leadership seeks diplomatic channels last, not first. Such a tendency gives an original texture to the fabric of agreements covering our many related interests.

Boundary Waters

What I have said thus far points mostly to our sweet reasonableness in the development of policy. I don't want to withdraw that impression, because I believe both sides largely succeeded in following the rule of reason. However, it's not always easy. I am thinking now of our boundary waters and related concerns—the sort of issues that come before the International Joint Commission, which was established way back in 1909 by the Boundary Waters Treaty. I don't believe that anyone acquainted with the background of our deliberations on the St. Lawrence Seaway, the level of Lake Ontario, or the development of river waters for power and irrigation will say that we have been entirely gentle with each other. There are so many nonfederal interests on both sides to consider that we must drive pretty hard bargains.

As one famous Canadian is wont to say, the outcome in some cases must favor "the side to whom Divine Providence has given the right topography."

While I am far from being an expert in this field, I am struck by our ability to contest very hard with each other in behalf of our water rights, without having each issue become an international incident. Of course, our Boundary Waters Treaty of 1909 does much to keep us on an even keel, and this was an act of deliberate policy. But just as important, I feel, is the national determination not to let our general interest be overridden by some particular, and it is here where the good sense of our people comes into play.

In any case these illustrations are a far cry from 1911, when a government in Canada was ousted over the issue of trade reciprocity with the United States. So we may ask ourselves whether these striking changes in attitude inspired policy or were inspired by it. Looking at the record, I am inclined to answer that the rush of external

events forced North Americans to adopt approximate measures, which were progressively refined and then blessed with the name of policy.

At the bottom, of course, was the instinct of self-preservation, coupled with a good measure of natural friendship. A considerable amount of foreign policy is made that way. Given their peculiarly close background, Canada and the United States have been able to set sail in uncharted waters and take their soundings as they have moved along. This has been particularly true in defense matters. Where countries not so fortunate in understanding are concerned, it is rather more necessary to explore the passage before weighing anchor.

In considering the formulation of foreign policy, as between Canada and the United States, we have examined certain characteristics. These are simplicity of intercourse, forthrightness, hard bargaining, and, above all, a willingness to act together in solving common problems. Now, policy planning can hardly be given the credit for such characteristics. They seem to spring, rather, from the nature of the people involved.

This nature, in turn, is conditioned by the major institutions that we hold in common—free governments, the same language, a devotion to education, and all the rest. I apologize for falling into truisms, but they are all part of the picture and all the more true because they are truisms.

If what I have said is correct, we may ask whether policy planning itself has had any effect on our foreign relations.

Although somewhat more in the background, the function of deliberate policymaking has been playing an increasingly important part. The North Atlantic Treaty Organization exemplifies the employment in foreign relations of a carefully projected relationship. And our parallel interest in NATO not only has invigorated but has justified in many respects our joint endeavors in continental defense. The same may be said of our participation in the United Nations and its subsidiary organizations. These activities form a trend of the times and would keep Canada and the United States fairly concerned with each other, even though they had little else in common.

NATO has its blueprints but they are also at hand in our exclusively bilateral relationships. A good many of the best minds in both countries are working on these, while the fruition of their efforts depends upon the policymakers. Right now

our policymakers are pondering some of the most important considerations that have faced our two countries since the war. They are far from being in the state of suspense that one might expect while relations between us remain so easy.

We seem to have reached a juncture at which policy planning is definitely in the ascendant. It now seems obvious that we shall be encountering many temperature gradients in the quest for world security. Soviet planners boast of thinking in terms of an historical era. If we are to avoid the temptation to change our course every time the wind blows hot or cold, it is necessary to have a long-range outlook. No doubt this can be produced only through the closely coordinated and steady application of our policy thinkers.

Spirit of Geneva

Any discussion of United States foreign policy today without a reference to the spirit of Geneva would be incomplete. There have been many questions as to why those in charge of Soviet foreign policy have manifested such public anxiety to obtain a relaxation of tensions with the Western World. There have even been interpretations that this resulted from a series of Soviet successes in the field of foreign policy. Perhaps a more reasonable interpretation would be that the shift is due to the bankruptcy of a policy line which had played itself out in a futile effort to prevent the development of the Western collective security system. The aggressive Soviet foreign policies were producing diminishing returns. Their efforts in cold- and hot-war operations had built up Western unity and resistance. They had become alarmed over the success of Western positions-of-strength policies.

There is no evidence that the shift of Soviet policy is due to anxiety over an impending internal collapse, however great the internal difficulties of the Soviet orbit may be. There is of course no question that the Soviet Union in the maintenance of a gigantic military establishment faced grave difficulties. It is recalled that the industrial base of the Soviet Union is actually less than one-third that of the United States, and that its agricultural production is losing ground in relation to the growth of the Russian population. Over a very long period the Soviet population has suffered from the diversion of the national economic effort away from consumer goods, and this distortion could not be endured indefinitely. The Soviet

leadership could not afford to remain indifferent to the craving of the people for some improvement of their low standard of living, and the adjustment may well have called for a breather in the international pressure system.

Before the Geneva meeting we witnessed a rapid-fire succession of Soviet moves obviously carefully prepared in advance and timed to fill in the gap caused by the failure of Soviet opposition to the London-Paris Accords. Mr. Molotov actually listed those moves in his San Francisco speech of June 22, 1955, in which he referred to the signature of the Austrian treaty, the peacemaking trip to Belgrade, the invitation to Chancellor Adenauer to visit Moscow, the offer to Japan to negotiate a peace treaty, and the May 10 disarmament proposals.² These moves have been accompanied by an effervescence of cordiality and a facilitation of contacts and travel.

In a sense, then, these various Soviet moves seem to have been designed to meet the earlier Western demands for "deeds" which would create an atmosphere making possible the Geneva meeting at the "summit" which Sir Winston Churchill had suggested in 1953 and which had fired the public imagination. While Geneva has succeeded in creating fresh hope and an encouraging atmosphere, it has of course created other problems for the free nations which for the past years have been held in close association by the anxieties and fears arising out of the overhanging threat to their security. When those fears and anxieties subside, it is necessary to adjust to the new situation. We believe that this is an evolution which requires the most careful examination, but we wish to do everything possible to promote a hopeful trend with the thought that it may become so strong that it would be irreversible. We are eager to see tensions relaxed; we feel it would be exceedingly dangerous to relax our vigilance or substantially to alter programs for collective security. We want to be sure that the recent change of attitude is not merely an application of the classical Communist maneuver known as "zig-zag."

In pursuing a policy of reciprocating the present Soviet attitude and conduct, we do not intend to sanctify the status quo, replete as it is with many international injustices which should be corrected. Obviously human freedoms should be restored in the vast areas where they are now denied. The

² For proposals, see BULLETIN of May 30, 1955, p. 900.

unnatural partition of Germany, now in its second decade, is among these injustices, as is the denial of a truly independent national existence to the peoples of the satellite states and the subjugation of hundreds of millions of people to what by Western standards are slave-labor conditions. We propose to continue our vigilance in the field of subversive activities which are promoted through the underground apparatus of international communism.

Among our major projects in the security and disarmament field we regard President Eisenhower's proposal for an aerial inspection³ as not merely imaginative but as thoroughly realistic.

We shall hope that the Soviet leadership will not want to see a reversion to the former state of distrust and tension and that they will be willing to pay some appreciable price to avoid it. The meetings which lie ahead should provide valuable opportunities to gain further insight into their attitude. Thus, it is clear that an encouraging relaxation of tension and a calmer atmosphere does not justify the abandonment of essential programs for individual and collective security nor a tolerance which would permit an expansion of covert penetration and aggression in harmony with the classic methods of international communism. We do hope that the spirit of Geneva means an opportunity for peaceful change which will dispel fear and remedy injustices. And if that is true, it will find the United States ready and willing to work in that spirit.

Foreign Ministers of France, U.K., and U.S. To Meet

Press release 520 dated August 31

The Foreign Ministers of France, the United Kingdom, and the United States plan to take advantage of their presence in New York during the U.N. General Assembly to meet together on September 27 and 28 to discuss matters of common interest, including the forthcoming Geneva conference.

On September 28 they will be joined by the Foreign Minister of the German Federal Republic.

These meetings are a part of the preparatory consultations, which have already begun, between the French, United Kingdom, and the U.S. Governments and their NATO partners.

³ *Ibid.*, Aug. 1, 1955, p. 173.

Peace Founded on International Law

by Harold E. Stassen
*Special Assistant to the President*¹

Any comprehensive review of the current world situation would seem to lead to two basic conclusions upon which every thoughtful person should reflect. Each has very significant implications for international law in the years ahead. Each requires both the professional and the civic leadership of the members of the bar around the world.

First: Any major war would result in such devastation of vast areas on each side that neither side could conceivably gain through such a war, and every nation of the world, participants and non-participants, neutral and partisan, developed and underdeveloped, would suffer a serious setback in its way of life.

Second: A continuing peace will lead to a generation of unprecedented rapid progress in material and cultural attainments for the peoples of every nation, every race, and every continent.

May I expand just a bit on these fundamental far-reaching alternatives.

Each conclusion is directly related to the amazing advance of the scientists in the field of nuclear energy.

Weapons have been designed and fabricated with the capacity to substantially disrupt any city in the world in a single blow. Airplanes have been perfected and built which can carry such weapons a third of the way around the world in any direction in less than 14 hours nonstop. Our own country has accomplished both of these developments. We are not alone in this.

A single squadron of modern bombers carrying these weapons could deliver a blow more severe than that inflicted by all of the planes in all of

their attacks on both sides in World War II. The aftermath of these weapons would make the bombed and burned cities of World War II seem like attractive havens by comparison. The dislocation and chaos that would follow would inevitably have serious adverse consequences to the economies, the governmental structures, the social systems, and perhaps even the lives of the people of all nations, even though not directly struck by such blows.

Conversely, the same scientific breakthroughs, the parallel development methods, and the identical refined nuclear materials are capable of advancing the constructive energy, the productive power, the food, clothing, and shelter, the educational and cultural opportunities, the facilities for trade and travel of the peoples of the world to such an extent that the next two decades under conditions of peace could be known in history as the Decades of the Great Advance.

Which alternative shall it be? Shall we find the way to leave behind the many centuries of the rule of lawless force in international affairs and establish through agreement international laws for a lasting peace?

There are some grounds for hope for a favorable result. There are no grounds for careless overconfidence.

If a period of unparalleled peace and prosperous progress for mankind is to be our happy experience, then I believe that this year 1955, and particularly the leadership and statesmanship of President Eisenhower and Secretary Dulles at Geneva, will be marked by historians as a turning point.

I am sure you are all aware that the President's proposal on July 21 at Geneva to the rulers of the Soviet Union for an exchange of a blueprint of our armed forces and for opening up both

¹ Address made before the American Bar Association at Philadelphia, Pa., on Aug. 23 (White House press release).

countries to comprehensive reciprocal inspection with the aid of aerial photography² went to the very heart of this crucial alternative before the world. It set forth in clear and practical terms a beginning for the establishment through agreement of a peace founded on sound international law.

Confidence by each major nation that it will not be attacked by another is critical in providing the climate needed for an assurance of peace. Such confidence can only arise through certain knowledge by each side, and such knowledge can only be acquired through legal methods founded on agreements. Such confidence cannot rest securely on general declarations unsupported by inspection.

The principle of definite agreement on arms and openness to inspection has been applied in central Europe in the pact of the Western European Union (WEU).³ It has resulted in a very broad and, I believe, durable improvement in the relationships between Germany and France and all the nations of Western Europe.

Armament Control in Western Europe

I find that it is not generally realized that those WEU agreements, hammered out through years of persistent diplomacy in the face of numerous disappointments, have within them the principles of agreed openness to inspection appropriate to the circumstances, and established a system of disclosure and verification. The agreement was signed by Belgium, France, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom, and West Germany. It provides for the establishment of an agency for the control of armaments whose duties will be (a) to satisfy itself that the undertakings of the parties not to manufacture specified types of armament are carried out; and (b) to verify the level of stocks of specified types of armament existing, in production, or being imported.

Each of the members of the Western European Union is bound by the agreement to furnish annually to the agency, in respect of all its forces on the mainland of Europe, statements of the total quantities of specified types of armament, including atomic, biological, and chemical weapons and

guided missiles, which are required in relation to its forces; the quantities of such armaments held by it at the beginning of each year; and the programs for obtaining the required number of these armaments by manufacture in its own territory or by importation.

Each member of the Union undertakes to notify to the agency the names and locations of the depots containing armaments that are subject to verification and the names and locations of the plants manufacturing such armaments or intended for such manufacture.

Each member of the Union undertakes, further, to keep the agency informed of the quantities of specified armaments, including atomic, biological, and chemical weapons and guided missiles, which are to be exported from its territory on the mainland of Europe. The agency will be entitled to satisfy itself that the armaments referred to are in fact exported.

For the purpose of satisfying itself that the parties are not manufacturing specified types of armament, the agency is authorized to scrutinize statistical and budgetary information and to make test checks, visits, and inspections of production plants, depots, and armed forces. It is expressly stated in the agreement that the inspections made by the agency will not be of a routine character but will be in the nature of tests carried out at irregular intervals. It is also expressly stated that due process will be provided in respect of private interests. The members of the agency, for their checks, visits, and inspections, are to be accorded free access on demand to plants and depots, and the relevant accounts and documents are to be made available to them. The agency and the national authorities of each state are to cooperate in the checks and inspections, and national authorities, at their own request, may take part in them.

The agency will immediately report to the Council of the Western European Union if inspection or information from other sources reveals (a) the manufacture of armaments of a type which the member concerned has undertaken not to manufacture or (b) the existence of stocks of armament in excess of the specified figures and quantities. If the Council is satisfied that the infraction reported is not of major importance and can be remedied by prompt local action, it will so inform the agency and the state concerned, and the necessary steps will be taken. In case of other infractions the Council will invite the state concerned to pro-

² BULLETIN of Aug. 1, 1955, p. 173.

³ For text of Protocol No. IV to the Brussels Treaty on the Agency of Western European Union for the Control of Armaments, see *ibid.*, Nov. 15, 1954, p. 726.

vide the necessary explanation within a period determined by the Council. If the explanation given by the state concerned is considered unsatisfactory, the Council, by majority vote, will take the measures which it deems necessary in accordance with a procedure to be determined.

Basic Principles for Disarmament

Quite likely in world relationships a period of many months of negotiations on this question of levels of armaments and openness to inspection will follow upon the initiative of the Heads of Government at Geneva and the opening of the sessions of the subcommittee of the United Nations Disarmament Commission session on August 29. But if the peoples of the world and the leaders under every form of government think through the situation thoroughly, there are grounds for sober optimism. It is true that the path of peace has never before been trod in a continuous and dependable manner. But this is the time that the benefits from traveling on it and the tragedy from departing off it have both assumed such new proportions that the conditions are truly without precedent. As I see it, it will be necessary that we have ever in mind these 11 interwoven principles:

1. A secure method, assured by inspection, must be found to end the competitive buildup of greater and greater armaments.
2. Restraint and patience must be practiced by every nation, especially the most powerful.
3. No nation shall attempt to take selfish advantage of the desire of another nation to avoid war.
4. The United States must maintain adequate strength for its own defense and to help deter aggression by any other nation.
5. All peoples should have and know opportunities to advance their standards of living under conditions of peace, including the peaceful civilian uses of atomic energy.
6. The economy of the United States must be kept sound and strong, with expanding conditions of living for our people.
7. We must be true to our ideals of individual dignity, human liberty, and spiritual values under God.
8. The exchange of knowledge and of peaceful goods, and the understanding of cultures, between the peoples of the world must expand.
9. The United Nations should be supported to an increased degree in its second decade.

10. The spirit of cooperation between countries, of helping others for mutual benefits, should spread.

11. Peaceful methods of settling disagreements between nations, such as direct negotiation and mediation, shall take the place of ultimatums, threats of war, and the terrible eventuality of war itself.

I invite, I urge, the lawyers of America and their fellow members of the bar in all nations to take an intelligent and indispensable part in establishing the public understanding and the practical steps for the development of international law to successfully aid the people in their determined, prayerful quest for peace.

The Post-Geneva Spirit

Press release 518 dated August 30

At his news conference on August 30, Secretary Dulles was asked for his thinking on how the post-Geneva spirit was developing. The Secretary made the following reply:

It is hard to say yet how it is developing because it is not put to the test as yet. The first testing is beginning—or, perhaps I should say—began yesterday with a meeting of the U.N. Disarmament Subcommittee.

That is the first meeting of the representatives of governments which have a responsibility to carry out one of the directives that was given at Geneva. The next occasion will arise when the Foreign Ministers meet on the 27th of October to deal with the other aspects of the directive; namely, the problem of European security and unification of Germany, the problem of increased contacts between East and West, better communications. And we also have an instruction to take note at least of the progress and developments which have occurred on the subject of disarmament at the United Nations.

The important thing to remember is that the Geneva conference was never looked upon as an end but only as a beginning. That was pointed out by the President and myself several times before Geneva. It was hoped that Geneva would generate a new spirit, but it was never felt that that spirit was an end in itself. What was said then was that it was hoped that a new spirit could be put into the processes which would there be established for the purpose of bringing about practical results in terms of such matters as limitation

of armament and unification of Germany, and the like.

Whether or not those results will be achieved we will now soon begin to learn. If it does not achieve results, then, as the President said, the spirit of Geneva will turn out to be spurious and not genuine.

Discussions Concerning Japan's Economic and Defense Problems

TEXT OF JOINT STATEMENT

Press release 523 dated August 31

Mamoru Shigemitsu, Deputy Prime Minister and Foreign Minister of Japan, has concluded three days of discussions with Secretary of State John Foster Dulles and other high United States officials.

The Foreign Minister was accompanied among others by Ichiro Kono, Minister of Agriculture and Forestry; Nobusuke Kishi, Secretary-General of the Japan Democratic Party; Ambassador to the United States Sadao Iguchi; Ambassador Toshikazu Kase, Japan's Permanent Observer to the United Nations; and Takizo Matsumoto, Deputy Chief Cabinet Secretary.

American officials in addition to the Secretary of State who met with the Foreign Minister and members of his party included: Under Secretary of State Herbert Hoover, Jr.; Deputy Secretary of Defense Reuben B. Robertson, Jr.; Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff Admiral Arthur W. Radford; Mr. John Hollister, Director of the International Cooperation Administration; Deputy Under Secretary of State Robert Murphy; Assistant Secretary of Defense Gordon Gray; Ambassador to Japan John M. Allison; and Acting Assistant Secretary of State for Far Eastern Affairs William J. Sebald.

A free and frank exchange of views from the global viewpoint was held concerning more recent international developments, notably the implications of the "Summit" meeting at Geneva, the present United Nations discussions on disarmament, and the impending Conference of Foreign Ministers at Geneva. The Far Eastern situation was also discussed. Secretary Dulles explained the policy of the United States to support freedom firmly while exploring patiently every avenue which may lead to the enhancement of general

peace. Foreign Minister Shigemitsu drew on his experience in the Soviet Union and China in interpreting his nation's policies. The Secretary of State and the Foreign Minister concurred in the view that while the immediate danger of major war had perhaps receded there still remain elements of uncertainty in the situation, particularly in the Far East, and that the continued solidarity of the free world is needed to maintain improved prospects of peace.

The Foreign Minister expressed Japan's resolve to maintain cooperation with the United States and the free world as the cornerstone of its foreign policy. In this connection the Secretary of State and the Foreign Minister, recognizing the desirability of closer cooperation between their countries for the purpose of securing stability and enduring peace in the Far East, agreed that consultations between their Governments should continue on various problems of mutual concern.

The basic problems of Japanese security were discussed. The Foreign Minister indicated that Japan's defense strength has now reached a considerable level and expressed the firm determination that the policy of progressive increase will be continued within the limit of Japan's capacity. He explained the plans for increasing Japan's defense capabilities recently formulated by the Japanese defense authorities. It was agreed that these plans should be studied in the course of the continuing consultations in Tokyo on United States-Japanese defense relationships and should be reviewed from time to time in the light of strategic requirements.

It was agreed that efforts should be made, whenever practicable on a cooperative basis, to establish conditions such that Japan could, as rapidly as possible, assume primary responsibility for the defense of its homeland and be able to contribute to the preservation of international peace and security in the Western Pacific. It was also agreed that when such conditions are brought about it would be appropriate to replace the present Security Treaty¹ with one of greater mutuality.

With the conclusion of such a treaty as an objective, it was further agreed that consultations would take place in Tokyo between Japanese and United States representatives on defense problems and that in such consultations consideration will be given to the establishment of schedules for the

¹ For text, see BULLETIN of Sept. 17, 1951, p. 464.

progressive withdrawal of United States ground forces as Japan's own defense capacity increases and taking into account the related situation in Asia.

On the problem of Japan's financial contribution to the support of United States forces in Japan, there was agreement on the desirability of establishing a general formula for progressive reduction over the next several years.

The Foreign Minister emphasized Japan's need to expand its trade with other countries particularly in Asia and expressed appreciation for the help of the United States in assisting Japan to become a full member of the General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade.

Secretary Dulles expressed current thinking about assistance for the economic development of the free nations of Asia pursuant to United States legislation. It was recognized that the measures planned would facilitate Japan's efforts to improve its economic position and attain a higher standard of living. The Secretary stressed the contribution to economic development which could be made by foreign private investment both in Japan and in other countries of the area.

The Foreign Minister requested the early release of war criminals under United States jurisdiction. The Secretary of State described the complexity of the problem and indicated that the question of the release of the war criminals will be kept under continuous and urgent examination.

It was agreed that no major obstacles remain to settlement for economic assistance rendered to Japan during the occupation and that utmost efforts will be made to bring the negotiations in Tokyo on this subject between the two Governments to an early conclusion.

Throughout these talks the representatives of the United States and Japan recognized that Japan, as a major power in Asia, should play an active role in friendly cooperation with other Asian nations in contributing to stability and peace in Asia. They agreed that in view of Japan's efforts to establish internal stability, reconstruct the national economy and strengthen its defense capacity, there is a firmer basis for continuing cooperation between the United States and Japan. Foreign Minister Shigemitsu and Secretary of State Dulles confirmed anew the determination of their Governments to expand this relationship further so that they together and with others may pursue their work for the consolidation of world peace and freedom.

ARRIVAL OF FOREIGN MINISTER SHIGEMITSU

Following are the texts of statements made at the Washington National Airport on the arrival of Mamoru Shigemitsu on August 25.

Statement by Acting Secretary Henderson

Press release 516 dated August 25

It is indeed a pleasure, Your Excellency, for me, on behalf of the Government of the United States, to welcome you in Washington as the Minister for Foreign Affairs of a great country with which the United States has such cordial relations. It is most agreeable to me, personally, to greet you as an old friend whom I have not had an opportunity to see for many years.

I recall that some 35 years ago, in the early part of your distinguished career, you served as Consul in Portland, Oregon. During the intervening years you have formed many friendships with my fellow countrymen in Japan and in various other parts of the world. You therefore are not arriving as a stranger.

I know that I speak for Secretary Dulles and for other United States officials when I say that we are happy to have this opportunity to meet with you and to discuss with you matters of interest to both of our Governments.

Statement by Mr. Shigemitsu

I am very happy to have this opportunity of visiting again the United States. My trip, to be sure, is entirely official; but as I have been away for many years, I hope that I may find a few moments of leisure during my brief stay so that my daughter and I together may admire some of your magnificent country.

Usually when traveling by air, I find myself over desolate landscapes during the day and over scenic spots during the night. But this time I was most fortunate. I crossed your splendid land in the daytime and was deeply impressed by its vastness and variety, as well as by the many evidences, visible even from the air, of the good life that we in other lands associate with the United States.

I have looked forward to this trip for some time. I have come here, as you perhaps know, to meet with your distinguished leaders in order to exchange views and opinions personally on broader issues of common concern in the light of recent international developments. I am confident that these conversations will prove of lasting

mutual benefit, signifying a fresh start of collaboration between our two countries.

And while here, I intend also to reaffirm in unmistakable terms the enduring friendship that now happily exists between Japan and the United States. Our aspirations basically are alike and so, too, are our fundamental interests. As free nations, we are seeking means of contributing, each according to its capacity, toward the peace and well-being of all.

Thank you for your warm welcome.

Parole of Japanese War Criminals

Press release 522 dated August 31

The Clemency and Parole Board for War Criminals has approved the parole of 22 Japanese war criminals presently serving sentences imposed by tribunals established by the Government of the United States. The sentences of five of the parolees were reduced in duration.

Names of those paroled follow:

Sue, Tadashi; Hidaka, Yoshimi; Yamamoto, Kingo; Yamaguchi, Toshio; Ikeda, Kaneyoshi; Hamamoto, Jiro; Sakai, Seijiro; Komatsu, Teruhisa; Yonemaru, Masakuma; Shichino, Shinobu; Yuki, Chisaku; Ishiguro, Hiroshi; Kawamori, Shuji; Nakada, Yoshiaki; Nakabayashi, Kiyonobu; Kaneke, Takio; Tanaka, Mitsuji.

The following had their sentences reduced and were paroled:

Isayama, Haruji; Aoki, Shoichiro; Nakao, Otokichi; Yamauchi, Kunimitsu; Nagakura, Seizo.

Arab-Israel Dispute

Press release 519 dated August 30

At his news conference on August 30, Secretary Dulles was asked if he had yet heard from the Arab States or Israel about the peace plans proposed by him on August 26.¹ The Secretary replied that he had not.

¹ BULLETIN of Sept. 5, 1955, p. 378.

Q. Mr. Secretary, are you contemplating any direct intervention with either Egypt or Israel with a view to trying to stop the fighting in the Gaza area?

A. We have made representations to both Governments urging that they should refrain from the use of force in the area.

Q. Sir, when were these representations made to both sides? Was it this week or last week?

A. Well, the most recent representations were, I think, made within the last 48 hours.

Q. Here, sir, or in their capitals?

A. In their countries.

Q. Mr. Secretary, what do you expect will happen next in so far as your [Arab-Israel] proposals are concerned? Are we now awaiting their reaction on them?

A. Yes, that would be the normal next development. The proposals, if you wish to call them that—perhaps it would be better stated as a policy statement on the part of the United States—that “policy statement” is being studied, I understand, by the governments most directly concerned, and I assume that in due course we will get reactions from them and that that will then determine our future course of action, if any.

Q. Mr. Secretary, in your speech you quote the President as saying, “Given a solution of the other related problems,” you would recommend that the United States join in formal treaty engagements. Will you please elaborate what you mean by “other related problems”?

A. No, I’m sorry to say that I do not think it is wise or proper for me to add anything of substance to what I have said in my statement itself. That statement was a very carefully considered statement and I put in it what I felt was appropriate to put in and, until we have a reaction from the countries concerned to the statement as made, I do not care to elaborate upon it in terms of its substance.

Q. Have any of the governments concerned so far requested any clarifications from the Department on your proposals?

A. No.

Concerted Efforts Against Tyranny

by Eleanor Dulles¹

As I read history, both recent and remote, one of the main lessons is patience. As I see diplomacy, I am convinced one of the major requirements is endurance. It is clear that patience and endurance have no meaning without direction and goals. It is no less clear that experience shows that the achievement of freedom of nations calls for the continuing effort of unwavering intensity of the average man.

Our people began to learn early in their history the importance of continuing cooperation between individuals and of dependable mutual assistance. One of the early and successful efforts in the Colonies, when they banded together as a group of separate political entities for defense, was that initiated by Benjamin Franklin 200 years ago in the middle of the 18th century. At this time Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia were threatened during the French and Indian War. Efforts of isolated communities and scattered settlements to concert their resources and bring together their common strength were successful, and the danger receded. This is one of the first lessons to the average American of those times in the meaning of strength through union. As you remember, it was Benjamin Franklin who said, "We must indeed all hang together or most assuredly we shall all hang separately."

It has not been easy or automatic for free men to band together for mutual protection and for mutual benefit, but the necessity becomes apparent in times of danger. The American trail has always followed the same star. Adherence to this principle led to the foundation of our Republic and later to the preservation of our Union. Our

understanding of the strength that comes through mutual endeavor has led us as individuals and as a nation to come to the assistance of men who were fighting for freedom and the dignity of the individual in two World Wars. Because we have seen the threat to our principles and peril to our fellow men, we gave generously of our assistance for reconstruction and relief after the World Wars.

The wider sense of international cooperation taking in its scope all of the free world has come naturally from the early beginnings. It is based on the solid substructure of public opinion. It has come with the realization of the threat to men's freedom. Only because of the understanding of the nature of the threat has it been possible to take on the arduous task of working together.

The results of the serious and sustained efforts of recent years have been manifest in the Marshall plan, in NATO in Europe, in SEATO in the Far East, and most recently in the Western European Union.

The realization of the sacrifices called for came as the U.S.S.R. attempted to frustrate the peaceful reconstruction by opposition to the Marshall plan, to the Austrian treaty, and to other cooperative efforts. Our ideals and our fears led to a strong surge ahead in the direction of international association.

The struggle is now in a phase which requires more clarity of thinking than that which was needed previously in periods of open conflict. There is always the danger in this country and elsewhere that those who have given already of their funds, their strength, and their years will wish to turn to easy preoccupations of their personal lives. There is the desire to fix one's mind on the existing peace and to think that aggression is remote, to ignore the partially hidden threats to liberties. Only if our faith in the individual is kept in the foreground and if we are

¹ Address made before the Ladies' Auxiliary of the Veterans of Foreign Wars at Boston, Mass., on Sept. 1 (press release 521 dated Aug. 31). Mrs. Dulles is Special Assistant to the Director of the Office of German Affairs.

aware of tyranny where it exists, can we be sure of the concerted effort.

In thinking of these dangers and more remote problems we are quick to recognize the importance of national leadership, but we sometimes overlook the steadfastness of other people, the rank and file who stand back of these leaders.

Sacrifices of Captive Peoples

The contribution of the men and women under Communist rule or in devastated areas has often been more vital and has called for greater sacrifice than that which we have made. Many countries have suffered both from war and communism. Many nations have known famine, disease, and civil disturbance such as we have never experienced.

In spite of these near and present sufferings, in spite of threats of bodily harm and continuing harassment by dictators, many nations and their leaders have stood steadfast. They have shown their choice of democratic principles in acts as well as by their words. They have developed instruments of human cooperation which can be the only salvation for the individual, the only assurance of the rights and dignities which have been so severely pressed. Their specific efforts are varied and manifold. They vary with wide differences in tradition and in circumstance. They have in common the one basic element of the protection of thought and action from enslavement. They are similar in the willingness to pay the price of adjustment and change for the common good.

From the political, diplomatic, and economic angles, there is a wide variety of forms of institutions of mutual action, and there is no single global or even regional solution. Problems as varied as those of Trieste, Guatemala, and Suez have called for resolution. Others in North and South Africa, in the Middle and the Far East tax our scientific, material, and spiritual resources. Always patience and always a desire to escape tyranny are essential.

All the peoples who have made the choice—those in Austria, those in Berlin, and in many other lands—are aware of the long, difficult path ahead. All these nations have been through prolonged periods of distress. All realize that time wears down the spirit but also that the restoration of the spirit can come with dependable and far-reaching cooperation.

Patience and Endurance in Austria

The case of Austria illustrates my point of the importance of individual endurance.

Ten years of effort and endurance were required to bring about an Austrian treaty. I went into Vienna as an economic official with General Mark Clark's army in 1945. This was a period of privation and danger, when leaders were spirited away to the east and when the people were existing at a starvation level. The strain was almost unbearable. I saw the difficulties which come when people live under Communist occupation and often felt it would have been understandable if the people had faltered in their resistance.

I shared the disappointment of the men and women of Austria when the first hopes of a treaty in 1946 and 1947 faded in despair as the negotiations dragged through session after session. I attended many of these frustrating sessions.

Ten years passed and a multitude of proposals were rejected by the Soviets. Even though they had agreed in Moscow in 1943 with the British and the United States to liberate Austria, the men and women of that country were required to endure occupation until there was a vigorous advance of cooperation among Western nations. This victory came with the restoration of sovereignty to Germany and Germany's accession to NATO. The treaty was signed, and the date was finally set for the withdrawal of foreign troops. Thus, after many were convinced that a generation must pass before the day of freedom, the victory of peace was won and the red, white, and red Austrian flag replaced the foreign flags in Vienna.

During all these years the people of Austria were fighting for their personal liberties. They maintained independent local governments even in the Soviet-occupied zone. They ran their national government according to true democratic principles.

Perhaps the most striking evidence of their courage in the face of personal danger was the conduct of nationwide free elections twice during this period. In both instances the Communist vote was less than five percent of the total of votes cast even in those towns and cities where the Soviet soldiers were evident and exercised their authority over the local inhabitants.

The reconstruction of factories, mines, and farms was rapid, even though the workers knew that a substantial part of the products of the east part of the country were confiscated and exported with-

out pay. Their energy was evidence of the qualities of endurance in the face of danger. Thus, in spite of fears that the country would remain a weak dependency on Western aid, the economy expanded and became prosperous.

The people of Austria, a small land on the eastward slopes of the Alps, demonstrated early their free choice of political liberty and their will to fight the difficult day-to-day battles against oppression. The Austrian officials spoke freely against the injustice that was inflicted on their citizens. They protested promptly in their efforts to stop the kidnapping of those who fell into disfavor with the Soviets. They never yielded the essential elements of civil rights: an unfettered press and voluntary educational and cultural institutions.

This independence of action in the face of occupation restrictions called for a continuing faith in future deliverance. Without these efforts there would have been no Austria for the Western World to recognize. Russian communism would have dominated this country to the borders of Switzerland. The loss to Western institutions, to art, and to science would have been considerable.

We thus owe a debt to those in Austria who held on. We should remember with gratitude those who risked their families and their lives to resist the tyranny which threatened.

Resistance in Berlin

I wish also to illustrate my point by another case of courage and endurance, that is, the resistance of Berlin. In the case of Berlin, as in the case of Austria, I know the people. I have a direct understanding of their political and economic problems as the result of long talks with the citizens of Berlin.

I wish it were possible for you to fly in with me on my next trip in a few weeks. I expect to go soon to see the present state of the economy and the life of the people and to assess the progress of this extraordinary city.

The plane that takes me over 100 miles of Soviet-dominated territory lands at Tempelhof. This airfield is the central point of a small island in a Red Sea of communism. It will always symbolize the historic choice of the Berliners, in 1948, to endure the blockade rather than to join the alien camp.

Here, flying in at 2-minute intervals, came the planes in quick succession, forming a dramatic

bridge from the West laden with coal and wheat and other essential supplies. One would be unloading, one taxiing to its station, one coming in for a landing, and two circling for descent. It was a wonderful achievement of science combined with political courage.

For a period of 11 months virtually no surface freight came into or left the city. It was assumed by those who devised this attack, as well as by many others, that the economic life of the city would wither and that the Western allies would be forced to withdraw.

The bold decision of General Lucius D. Clay and the quick response of England and France made possible the institution of the airlift. Fuel was so low that it was almost impossible to have hot meals or to heat homes. It was recognized that the rations of those living in Berlin would have to be cut back and that a period of extreme austerity must be accepted.

While these arrangements for the airlift and early development of emergency measures were still in a state of uncertainty, the Communists offered substantial amounts of food and fuel to the Berlin officials if they would work closely with the Communist puppet regime and submit to Communist dictates.

The deliberations of the late Ernst Reuter, Mayor of all Berlin, Otto Suhr, the present Mayor, and their colleagues were brief and decisive. In protest they walked in a body from the City Hall in the east part of the city to the west where they established their new headquarters and where they now govern two-thirds of the divided city.

Their choice to trust the West and turn against the Eastern dictators was made before the success of the airlift could be forecast. At first only a trickle of supplies was coming into the city. The choice meant freedom as long as they could be supported from the West. It guaranteed no protection from the long period of waiting or from the arduous task of building up a crippled economy.

When the miracle of the cooperative effort bore results, when men and women working around the clock built new airfields, when raw materials and machinery were added to the food and fuel at first flown in, the production machine in Berlin began to function and the Communists recognized their defeat.

The victory went to the people of Berlin. The Berlin blockade failed not only because of the

skill and courage of our fliers and of our administrators, but even more because the men and women of Berlin were not willing to submit to the inducements and the pressures from the Communists. Thus, in Berlin as in Austria, the choice was made and the West stood with those who accepted the stress and strain.

The end of the blockade in 1949 did not, however, end the time of trouble for the Berliners. True, they were able to bring in goods by road and barge; true, the Soviets guaranteed free access to the city in accord with the earlier agreements. But the exposed and harassed position of the city remains to this day.

The economy which supported the two and a quarter million people in the western part of the city has been short of capital and hard pressed for materials. Unemployment at times was running as high as 30 percent of the labor force. This labor problem was made more onerous by the influx of thousands of refugees.

At the same time the close contacts between the Berliners and those who lived in the eastern part of Germany made the West Berliners constantly aware that their friends and relatives in the East were being shorn of their civil and human rights. They could not avoid the fear that again force and tyranny would sweep over the city and wipe out this isolated refuge of democracy.

If you were to visit Berlin, you would not at first be aware of this underlying threat. You would see many brightly lighted shops; you would find hotels offering you the comforts that you would expect in other Western European cities; you would find the people keen, fast-moving, and energetic.

Policy Toward Berlin

Their stamina is to a large extent native, but is based solidly on the declaration of the three Western powers "that they consider the security and welfare of the city essential to the peace of the free world." If you crossed to East Berlin, as you could without hindrance, and saw the effects of Communist rule in crushing the hope of the people, you would realize why this declaration is an important part of our policy. This solemn declaration issued in Paris in 1949 and reiterated in Berlin in 1954 sets the cardinal direction of U.S. policy toward Berlin. This is a policy of cooperation, understanding, and financial aid.

The aid is moderate, but it is thought to be sufficient to reduce unemployment to tolerable proportions.

The progress made since the blockade has been spectacular. The economic conditions are such that Berlin is competitive with Western Germany in many fields. It is beginning to become a tourist center with cultural festivals and industrial fairs. The casual visitor to Berlin forgets for a moment that he is behind the Iron Curtain, and only when he crosses the zonal line does he remember that a Communist dictatorship is within a short distance of his hotel or home. The Berliner does not forget. It is his main concern to remember and to devote extra time and energy to his reconstruction efforts, to his business, to the expansion of the educational and cultural manifestations of a new dedication to human freedom.

Berlin's men and women, old and young, are firm in their intentions, constant in their efforts. They will, at all cost, maintain their independence and fulfill their mission to keep a door in the Iron Curtain open for those who live to the East—Germans under Communist rule.

The strength to hold on to an ideal, to keep a firm grip on the principles of political and social freedom, is not mainly the result of professional training or of governmental decisions. This strength is, rather, deeply rooted in the attitudes of men and women, parents and children, teachers and students, workers and employers. It develops from early training. It is nourished by education, community activities, club, church, and press. Without general acceptance of the worthwhileness of the sacrifice, human endurance can be quickly worn down. The vitality in the social fabric to meet the strain of the times was found in Austria and has been implicit in the rebuilding of Berlin. Without the will to resist oppression, international association is impossible. In Austria and Berlin, as in many another outpost of freedom, people like us have seen the danger of tyranny and have made their choice for freedom. They have seen that every dictatorship aims to break up the strength of the family, the church, and of voluntary association. They have recognized the sometimes slow, sometimes rapid efforts to enslave the community and to deprive men of their most precious rights.

Now we are between two historic meetings in Geneva. The first seemed to hold some hope of better days for those who have endured through

troubled times. The second is designed to give practical fulfillment to that hope. The outcome of this October meeting will indicate whether we must face a return to dark days and increased tension—or whether there will be some genuine progress toward limitation of armament, toward ending the division of Germany, and toward ending political and ideological subversion. We share in the desperate desire of those who have endured so much, for a lessening of oppression and a promise of peace.

Claims Against Germany

Press release 514 dated August 25

Under the provisions of chapter 10 of the Settlement Convention with the Federal Republic of Germany, claims of United Nations nationals for the return or restoration of property subject to wartime discriminatory treatment must be filed on or before May 5, 1956, with the:

Bundesamt fuer die Pruefung auslaendischer Rueckgabe- und Wiederherstellungsansprueche
Rosenburg, Bonn, Germany.

The pertinent provisions of the Convention on the Settlement of Matters Arising Out of the War and the Occupation, as amended, are as follows:

CHAPTER TEN—FOREIGN INTERESTS IN GERMANY

ARTICLE 1

1. Insofar as this has not already been done, the Federal Republic will take all steps necessary to ensure that the nations, persons and companies referred to in paragraph 3 of this Article shall be able to secure the return of their property in its present condition, and the restoration of their rights and interests in the Federal territory to the extent to which such property, rights or interests suffered discriminatory treatment. The property, rights and interests of the nations, persons and companies referred to in paragraph 3 shall be freed by the Federal Republic from all encumbrances and charges of any kind to which they may have become subject as a result of discriminatory treatment. No costs shall be imposed either in connection with the return or restoration or with the removal of encumbrances or charges. Equitable conditions may, however, be imposed to prevent the unjust enrichment of any nation, person or company referred to in paragraph 3.

2. On the entry into force of the present Convention, the Federal Republic shall establish, and give adequate publicity to, the procedure described in the Annex to this Chapter for the filing and consideration of claims based on the provisions of this Article and for the satisfaction of awards based on such claims. Such claims shall be filed

within twelve months from the establishment of such procedure. The Federal Republic shall also make available, so far as possible, all information concerning the administration by custodians of property, rights or interests to any interested party who may request it.

3. The following shall be entitled to claim under the provisions of this Article:

- (a) United Nations and their nationals,
- (b) the successors of such nationals, and
- (c) companies organized under German law in which United Nations nationals own participation,

provided that such nationals or, except in the case of direct successors by inheritance or testamentary disposition, their successors were United Nations nationals at the date of the discriminatory treatment.

4. The term "discriminatory treatment" as used in this Article shall mean action of all kinds applied between 1 September 1939 and 8 May 1945 to any property, rights or interests, as a result of any exceptional measures which were not applicable generally to all non-German property, rights or interests, and giving rise to prejudice, deprivation or impairment without the free consent of the interested parties and without adequate compensation. Anything done or omitted under the German Ordinance on the Treatment of Enemy Properties of 15 January 1940 or any amendment thereto, or any other regulations having a similar purpose, may be held to amount to discriminatory treatment, even though within the scope of such Ordinance, amendments or regulations, where it appears that

- (a) injury to foreign property, rights or interests resulted therefrom; and
- (b) the injury inflicted could have been avoided without infringing such Ordinance, amendments or regulations.

5. The provisions of this Article are not applicable to claims which are dealt with under Chapters Three [Internal Restitution] and Four [Compensation for Victims of Nazi Persecution] of the present Convention.

6. The provisions of this Article are not intended to cover compensation for loss or damage to property, rights or interests due to discriminatory treatment or resulting indirectly or directly from the war by any other means, but shall not affect the right of any of the United Nations to advance during negotiation for a peace settlement any claim for compensation of this nature with respect to its own or its nationals' property, rights or interests.

ANNEX TO CHAPTER TEN

Section 2

1. Applications for return or restoration shall be made in writing, or by oral statement to be recorded, to the Federal Higher Authority.

2. Application shall include

- (a) first name, last name and address of the claimant and of his predecessor in title when applicable;

- (b) description of the discriminatory measure and of the property, rights or interests affected by it;
- (c) nationality of the claimant and of his predecessor in title, when applicable, at the time of the discriminatory measure.

3. Applications shall, if possible, include information concerning the person to whom the property, rights or interests were transferred, and concerning the person holding the property, rights or interests at the time of filing of the application.

4. Furthermore, all information and documents available to the claimant which refer to the property, rights or interests and to the discriminatory measure taken in respect of the property, rights or interests shall be attached to the application in the original or in a certified copy. On request, the original shall be submitted.

Section 3

Proceedings before the Federal Higher Authority shall be free of charge, except where frivolous or obviously unfounded applications are involved.

U.S. Relief Wheat to Libya

Press release 528 dated September 2

Fathi Abidia, Chargé d'Affaires ad interim of the Libyan Embassy in Washington, on September 2 signed at the Department of State an agreement covering a further grant of 6,000 metric tons of relief wheat to Libya.¹ This grain is being sent by the people of the United States to the people of Libya, who have been faced with an unprecedented third year of drought plus a serious locust invasion. The shipment is further evidence of sympathetic U.S. interest in Libya's welfare.

Attending the signature were officials of the Department of State and the International Cooperation Administration.

World Bank Loan to Lebanon for Litani River Project

The World Bank on August 26 announced that on that date it had made a loan of \$27 million to assist in financing the construction of a power and irrigation project on the Litani River in Lebanon. The project will more than double present electric-generating capacity in Lebanon and relieve the power shortage which has existed, particularly in

the Beirut area, for the past 10 years. It will also permit the irrigation of 8,500 acres along the Mediterranean coast, enabling Lebanon to increase the output of agricultural products for both export and home consumption.

The loan was made to the Litani River Authority, an autonomous government agency established in 1954 to execute construction of the project. The Authority has retained engineering consultants to plan and supervise the project and will itself manage and operate the power and irrigation works when they have been completed.

The Litani River and its tributaries are the largest of the undeveloped water resources in Lebanon. The development of the river basin was studied originally by technicians of the Lebanese Government and during 1951-54 a plan was drawn up by the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation as part of the U.S. technical assistance program for Lebanon. The project for which the loan was made is based on the Bureau's plan and corresponds largely to its recommendations for the construction of works to be undertaken as a first stage in the development of the basin.

The main purpose of the project is to supply additional electric power in Lebanon. The existing power system is overloaded and has no reserve capacity; private investment in additional power capacity has been insufficient to meet the rapidly expanding demand. There are restrictions on the use of electricity; industry in particular has been handicapped by this situation, and industrial establishments have had to install uneconomic power units of their own. A more ample and cheaper supply of power from public utilities is an essential prerequisite for the further economic development of the country.

The project is scheduled for completion in 1961. The total cost is estimated at the equivalent of about \$40 million. The bank's loan of \$27 million will be used to pay for the services of foreign consultants and contractors and for imports of power-generation equipment, transmission lines and substations, construction equipment, and some construction materials and supplies. The local currency requirements equivalent to about \$13 million will be provided by the Government in the form of interest-free advances. The earnings of the power system should be sufficient to cover service charges of the loan and, in addition, have surpluses adequate to build up reserves, after repayment of the Government's advances.

¹ This grant is in addition to the shipment of 6,800 tons of wheat announced on Aug. 1 (BULLETIN of Aug. 15, 1955, p. 263). Half of the new shipment is expected to reach Libya early in October, the remainder in November.

Eighth Semiannual Report to Congress on the Mutual Security Program

The President on August 25 transmitted to the Congress a report on the mutual security program for the 6 months ended June 30, 1955.¹ Printed below is chapter I of the report, entitled "Plus-Signs of Progress." The remaining five chapters deal in detail with programs in Asia, the Near East and Africa, Latin America, and Europe, and with other activities such as sales of surplus farm products.

As the mutual security program moved into a new fiscal year of operation in mid-1955, there was increasing evidence of solid gains achieved through joint efforts with some 70 countries and territories throughout the free world. The contribution of a portion of our military, economic, and technical resources to buttress the undertakings of other free nations has made it possible for them to carry out specific measures for preparing stiffer defenses against aggression and for building stronger economies. Added together, these measures have brought the free world as a whole to a position of measurably greater security and have made the ground firmer for further forward movement.

Events of the past six months, particularly in Europe, but also in Asia and other parts of the free world, have given additional demonstration that the United States investment in cooperative programs abroad is paying worthwhile dividends in stronger and more self-reliant partner nations and a lessening of international tensions. Today's greater opportunities for peaceful economic growth flow in great measure from our steadfast policy of a partnership approach in solving the difficult problems of our time.

¹ H. Doc. 266, 84th Cong., 1st sess. For excerpts from the seventh semiannual report, see BULLETIN of May 2, 1955, p. 717.

Stronger Military Posture of the Free World

The bulk of mutual security funds has been used to help put the free world into a stronger position to discourage armed aggression as a means of gaining world power. Through June 30, 1955, the United States had shipped \$11.4 billion worth of military equipment to bolster the defense efforts of more than 35 friendly countries. These shipments included 7,575 planes, 38,400 tanks and combat vehicles, and 1,079 Navy vessels; they also included artillery pieces, small arms, machine guns, electronic equipment, and other military supplies.

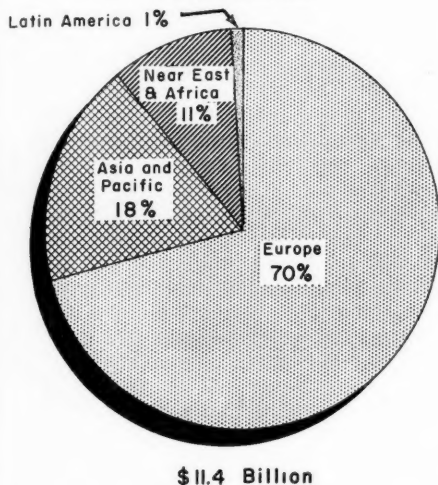
The United States has placed about \$2.8 billion worth of contracts in friendly countries for procurement of certain types of military items to be used by recipient governments for mutual security purposes. Such contracts overseas have helped our allies to develop their own capabilities for military production, reduce their dependence on this country for replacements and spare parts, and provide a close-in supply line in case of war.

In Europe.—The most powerful concentration of free world strength outside of the United States has been established in Western Europe. The free nations of Europe, linked with the United States and Canada through the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, have continued to move ahead in creating a strong deterrent force and in building their military capabilities to the point where they will be able to meet successfully any attempt to seize their lands and resources by armed force. The addition in May of a sovereign Germany to the free world community and to NATO opened up new avenues to increased unity and strength on the European continent.

European NATO nations (excluding Greece and

The U.S. Has Shipped Over \$11 Billion Worth Of Military Items To Free World Countries

Value of Military Aid Shipments
Through June 30, 1955



Turkey) are spending about \$12.3 billion a year on military production and maintenance of their armed forces. These outlays for defense, which are double what they were in 1950, are being made on an increasingly self-supporting basis. No new economic dollar aid to these European NATO countries is planned after June 30, 1955. Economic aid expenditures from previous appropriations are also declining rapidly.

Europe's invigorated defense effort, reinforced by our assistance, has been reflected in the impressive increase in NATO capabilities. The armed forces committed to the defense of the North Atlantic Treaty area today number about 100 divisions, active and in mobilizable reserves, as compared to NATO's total manpower complement of 12 divisions in 1949. There are now more than 6,000 planes available for defense of the NATO area.

The quality of weapons for the NATO arsenal has steadily improved. The latest types of jet planes, guided missiles, and atomic artillery are available in increased quantity for NATO defense. The basis has been laid for consideration of atomic capabilities in NATO planning. Hundreds of

joint training exercises have developed more effective fighting power and promoted smoother operational coordination among the land, air, and sea forces committed to NATO.

Mutual security funds have been used for the United States contribution to a military construction program financed jointly by all the NATO nations and designed to provide NATO with more effective logistic support. Through this program, NATO now has 142 airfields which could be used in an emergency. Communications and transportation networks have been modernized and extended, and construction on a 3,800-mile inland distribution pipeline for fuel is well advanced.

Elsewhere in the Free World.—Heartening progress toward a stronger defense posture also has been made in other areas of the free world. In underpinning defense efforts outside Europe, the mutual security program not only has helped build greater defense capabilities in individual countries; it also has been effective in developing an atmosphere for better cooperation in working toward regional defense arrangements.

New links have strengthened and lengthened our security chain in Asia and the Pacific. The latest link, the Southeast Asia Collective Defense Treaty, rounds out our mutual defense treaties with Korea, Japan, and the Republic of China on Formosa.

The Republic of Korea now has a strong force of 21 ground divisions on active duty. The free Chinese forces on Formosa are better trained and better equipped today, in great part because of United States military aid. Pakistan's defense establishment has received its first shipments of army equipment as a result of a military assistance agreement signed with this country in early 1954. The Philippines and Thailand have also substantially raised their defense capabilities because of our mutual security programs. Cambodia concluded a military assistance agreement with the United States in May 1955.

All these Asian countries are heavily committed to safeguard themselves against internal and external aggression. Large portions of their budgetary expenditures are being channeled into defense. In planning mutual security activities in Asia, we have taken into consideration new country responsibilities growing out of defense arrangements under the Southeast Asia Collective Defense Treaty.

In the Middle East, good progress has been made

in forming a "Northern Tier" as a defensive bulwark in the region. In the past two years, mutual protective arrangements have been furthered by agreements between Turkey and Iraq. There is also the Balkan alliance of Greece, Yugoslavia, and Turkey. All the foregoing countries are building their security with the help of our military assistance.

In our own hemisphere, the Rio Pact forms a strong defensive bond with our Latin American neighbors. Twelve American republics have concluded military assistance agreements with the United States. Appropriations of previous years when fully expended will substantially complete the equipping phase of the military assistance program in Latin America. New funds will be used primarily for maintenance and training purposes.

The military assistance we have furnished in the form of end-items and training, our contributions to jointly financed construction projects, and our offshore procurement programs are enabling our friends and allies to raise and maintain the equivalent of more than 180 divisions, about 280 air squadrons, and over 550 combat vessels. These forces, together with the strategic overseas military bases which our allies make available to us, give this nation security which it could not otherwise obtain.

Our allies are fully aware of the dangers of aggression and are determined to resist it. Even without United States support, it is certain that many of these nations would carry on sizeable defense efforts within the limits of their resources. But it is equally certain that United States contributions and joint participation have made it possible for these efforts to be many times greater and more effective. By supplying certain indispensable elements which allied nations could not provide for themselves, our support has enabled these nations to build and maintain better integrated, better balanced, and far more powerful military forces than would otherwise have been possible.

General Economic Advance and Greater Initiative

At this point, mid-way in 1955, the free world as a whole is in a better economic position than ever before.

In Western Europe, all economic indicators—industrial and agricultural production, trade, ex-

change reserves—are at high levels. Europe's gross national product in 1954, in terms of constant prices, was more than 35 percent above 1948, the start of the Marshall Plan. Although Western Europe's external payments position with the dollar area is delicately balanced and still somewhat dependent upon special United States military expenditures, the original Marshall Plan countries of the area no longer require dollar grants for economic aid.

In the underdeveloped areas, notable gains in economic development have been scored, despite the fact that the rate of progress lags far behind population needs. Particularly good advances have been made in food production, and the outlook is brighter for further forward movement in other vital sectors of the economy.

Most encouraging is the growing evidence that the countries in the underdeveloped areas are steadily gaining greater understanding of what they must undertake and what they can do to open the way to a better future. With broadened knowledge of their growth needs and growth potential has come increased enterprise for pushing ahead with developmental measures. In South and Southeast Asia, for example, it is estimated that public expenditures for development are currently more than double what they were in 1951-52.

In all parts of the economically underdeveloped areas, governments are mapping out basic plans which set forth key projects to be given priority attention in meeting the individual needs of their countries. Thus, Chile is accenting transportation and agriculture to correct its economic imbalance. Brazil, hampered by inadequate public utilities, has its plans centered on electric power and transportation projects. On the other side of the world, Egypt is pinning its efforts on the High Aswan Dam which could add 2 million acres to its presently narrow cultivable land area. Lebanon's plans encompass the development of the Litani River for irrigation and power.² In the Far East, Thailand is pushing plans to expand its highway and railroad systems; the Philippines is dividing its major developmental measures equally between rural improvement and industry.

World attention has been focused on India, the

² See p. 427.

largest free world nation striving to work out a better future for its 377 million people through representative government. Under India's current 5-Year Plan, per capita income has been raised by over 8 percent. Production is well ahead of schedule in food grains and cotton cloth, and is moving forward in other fields.

The processes which underlie India's economic gains contrast sharply with the methods used in Communist China, where production increases are planned with the most callous indifference to the needs of the individual and are forced into actuality by the harshest sort of human regimentation.

The mutual security program has played a key role in catalyzing and making more productive the determined efforts that participating countries have put into their own programs for economic development. Through defense support and development assistance measures, the program has financed the importation of vitally needed raw materials, equipment and commodities, and assisted in the execution of essential developmental projects. Through joint technical cooperation programs, it has shared with economically less advanced peoples all over the world the technical knowledge and skills which have played so great a part in our own national growth. The number of American technicians at work in the underdeveloped areas has increased over one-third since January 1953. The number of American university contracts for technical cooperation activities had increased to 67 at the end of June 1955, as compared with 14 in January 1953.

In a number of countries—Greece, Turkey, Iran, Korea, Formosa, the Philippines, to name only a few—economic aid has also performed a dual function in enabling friendly nations to undertake and sustain a substantial military effort while at the same time carrying forward measures for internal development.

The stimulating impact of the economic and technical aspects of the mutual security program has been felt in every part of the globe. Direct gains have been produced in terms of more food and clothing, more adequate basic facilities, improved health and housing, higher output and increased productivity, and better educated children. As these gains have multiplied, participating governments have substantially enlarged their share of funds, facilities, and personnel to the joint programs under way.

Use of Funds in Fiscal Year 1955

During fiscal year 1955, obligations and reservations under the military assistance program accounted for \$3.3 billion of mutual security funds. In addition, \$523 million was allotted for direct forces support in the form of soft goods consumed by the military, such as petroleum and cloth for uniforms. A total of \$795 million was allotted for defense support to reinforce the economies of those nations joined with us in programs of military assistance so that they could sustain their military contributions to free world defense; \$125 million was allotted for joint technical cooperation projects, and \$256 million for development assistance. The remainder was used for activities such as the United States share of international programs of technical assistance and children's welfare, the escapee and refugee programs, and aid to West Berlin.

During the fiscal year, agreements were made with 11 countries which provided for \$214.5 million of mutual security assistance to be furnished on a loan basis. Collections from all countries on previous loans made under mutual security programs amounted to about \$150 million as of the end of June 1955. These were mainly interest payments, since under the terms of the original loans repayments of principal generally do not begin to fall due until 1956.

By far the largest portion of expenditures made under the mutual security program has been for goods and services procured in the United States. In fiscal year 1955, over 75 percent of all program expenditures were paid to American suppliers.

During the 1955 fiscal year also, over \$467 million worth of United States surplus agricultural commodities were sold to friendly countries which have contracted to pay in their own currencies. These surplus sales were concluded in accordance with the provisions of Section 402 of the Mutual Security Act of 1954, and the sales proceeds have been earmarked for use in mutual security operations. Together with transactions made in the previous fiscal year under a similar provision, over \$700 million of our agricultural surpluses have been sold to friendly countries in direct connection with mutual security activities. Such sales were in addition to the surplus commodity sales carried out under Title I of the Agricultural Trade Development and Assistance Act of 1954.

The New International Cooperation Administration

In compliance with the Congressional provision that the Foreign Operations Administration be terminated as an independent agency by the end of June 1955, Executive Order 10610³ was issued on May 9, 1955, which transferred FOA activities to the Department of State. Certain military aspects of the mutual security program were transferred for administration to the Department of Defense.

Under the Executive Order, which took effect at the close of June 30, the International Cooperation Administration was established as a semi-autonomous organization in the State Department, and the President directed that the mutual security program be carried out by and under ICA. The Institute of Inter-American Affairs, the International Development Advisory Board, and the Office of Small Business, all of which formerly were under the Foreign Operations Administration, were attached to or made part of ICA.

The President selected John B. Hollister as the Director of the International Cooperation Administration. Mr. Hollister took office on July 1, and Harold E. Stassen, former Director of the Foreign Operations Administration, became Special Assistant to the President to help develop basic policy on disarmament. As Director of the new organization, Mr. Hollister will report directly to the Secretary of State and will supervise and direct the nonmilitary mutual security operations. He also has the responsibility for coordinating the entire program, although the Department of Defense will continue to administer United States assistance furnished directly to the armed forces of other nations. Such military assistance now includes "direct forces support", previously administered by the Foreign Operations Administration.

The International Cooperation Administration was established within the State Department in conformance with the wide recognition that the development of military and economic strength through our mutual security program is an integral part of United States foreign policy. In working out arrangements for the new organization, however, care had to be taken to maintain the central planning and the coherent direction necessary to insure coordinated and effective program action. To effect this, the Executive Order specified that the International Cooperation Ad-

ministration be made semiautonomous, with its own supporting staff and program personnel both in Washington and in the field. Within guide lines established by the Secretary of State, the Director of the ICA will perform the operations necessary to carry out our national policy objectives.

THE CONGRESS

Taxation of Foreign Income

Secretary of the Treasury Humphrey on July 27 wrote to Representative Cooper, Chairman of the House Committee on Ways and Means, submitting draft legislation to lower the rate of tax on corporate business income earned abroad in order to facilitate investment of U.S. capital in foreign countries. Following is the text of Secretary Humphrey's letter, together with his Memorandum on Problems in Taxation of Foreign Income.¹

LETTER TO REPRESENTATIVE COOPER

WASHINGTON, July 27, 1955.

HON. JERE COOPER

*Chairman, Committee on Ways and Means,
New House Office Building, Washington,
D. C.*

MY DEAR MR. CHAIRMAN: Last year, your committee and the House of Representatives included as part of the tax revision bill new provisions giving a lower rate of tax on corporate business income earned abroad, somewhat similar to that available since 1942 to income earned in the Western Hemisphere. Provision also was made for postponement of taxes on the income of foreign branches until it was removed from the country where it was earned, a treatment somewhat comparable to that now given to the income of foreign subsidiaries. These sections were omitted from the bill as reported by the Senate Finance Committee, but the report of that Committee stated the hope that provisions along these lines

³ BULLETIN of May 30, 1955, p. 889.

¹ Reprinted from *Cong. Rec.* of Aug. 16, 1955, p. 6027.

might be developed in the conference between the House and the Senate before final passage of the tax bill. This was not done. The Treasury Department has continued to examine the problem since that time.

I now submit to you a suggested draft of legislation designed to secure the results which were sought and apparently desired last year. This is in accord with the President's recommendation in 1954, which was reaffirmed in his message on foreign economic policy on January 10 of this year.²

The purpose of this recommended legislation is to facilitate the investment abroad of capital from this country. At present our business firms are at a disadvantage in countries with lower taxes than our own when they have to compete with local capital, or capital from countries which impose lower taxes on foreign income than we do. Foreign countries are also under an incentive to increase taxes on United States enterprises up to the level of United States tax rates.

Capital investment will aid in the economic development of foreign countries. Participation by United States enterprises will encourage development along the lines we have followed in this country which are especially helpful in raising living standards, through high wages and mass markets, and which will promote the flow of international trade with the United States.

The Treasury staffs and I will be glad to be of such assistance as we can to you, your committee, and your staffs in any consideration which you may wish to give to the taxation of foreign business income. A memorandum explaining our analysis of three of the problems we have considered in this area is enclosed.

Sincerely yours,

G. M. HUMPHREY,
Secretary of the Treasury

MEMORANDUM ON PROBLEMS IN TAXATION OF FOREIGN INCOME

The principal problem in developing recommendations for new legislation on taxation of income from foreign sources has been in the definition of foreign business income. Some argue for a broad definition, which would include not only

income earned from significant business activity actually conducted abroad but also income from products made here and merely sold for delivery abroad. Others favor a definition related to a "permanent establishment" abroad, or to the existence of a business activity subject to taxation in the country where it is conducted. Still others prefer a specific listing of designated activities which are deemed to be of particular importance. Naturally, the representatives of almost every particular industry or activity argue that they should not be left out of any group which receives favorable tax treatment.

In our analysis of the problems of definition, the following principles have seemed important. (1) As a matter of national policy, it would not be desirable or wise for this country to subsidize exports by taxing profits from exports at a lower rate than profits from domestic sales. For this reason, a definition based on ultimate destination, or place of delivery of goods produced, would not be satisfactory. (2) Small business should have the same potential advantages as larger businesses. (3) The standard selected should not be subject to manipulation by arrangements, for example, to rent an office or pay a small tax abroad to qualify for a substantial tax advantage at home.

The definition of foreign income suggested in the attached draft legislation³ revolves around the active conduct of a trade or business abroad, with the exception of export trade. It is a broad concept, related to economic activities which often involve capital investment and typically involve full participation and integration in the economy of the country where it is carried on. To avoid any tax motivation for companies to shift to foreign countries their production of goods intended for our own home markets, the importation to the United States of any substantial part of the products manufactured abroad would disqualify a company for the special tax treatment.

Inevitably there will be difficulties in administering this or any other definition of foreign income. In some instances it will be difficult to draw the dividing line between manufacturing which would qualify for the lower tax and minor assembly or repackaging which would not qualify. Such difficulties, however, should not stand in the way of an attempt to foster economic development through private capital investment.

² BULLETIN of Jan. 24, 1955, p. 119.

³ Not printed.

Two problems, of more limited scope, exist in connection with the postponement of tax on income earned by foreign branches.

First, under present law the income from a foreign subsidiary corporation is not taxed until it is received by the domestic parent company. There is no legal basis for taxation by this country of such income so long as it is held abroad by the foreign subsidiary, regardless of how it is reinvested or shifted from the country where it is earned to other foreign countries. It has been proposed that foreign branches of United States corporations be given similar latitude to shift funds between countries with no intervening tax imposed by the United States until foreign income is finally repatriated.

A deferral of tax on foreign income until it is repatriated would give the maximum encouragement to foreign investment. However, such a provision would be subject to abuse. There could be indefinite postponement of tax by shifting profits earned in high-risk areas to low-risk investments in other places. The diversification and growth of foreign investment among firms already operating profitably abroad would receive greater benefit than that of firms presently operating solely in the United States. It therefore seems preferable to adopt deferral of tax on branch income on a limited basis, at least in the first instance.

The second problem concerns the simultaneous allowance of both a deduction and a credit for foreign taxes on income received through foreign subsidiaries. At present the earnings of a foreign subsidiary corporation, when received as dividends by the parent corporation here, are subject to the regular United States corporation income tax, but a credit is allowed against the United States tax for any foreign income tax paid by the subsidiary. The United States tax is imposed only on the subsidiary's net earnings after payment of the foreign income tax. The combined effect of the credit and deduction (under some combinations of rates) is a somewhat lower total tax, foreign and domestic, than the United States tax would be by itself. For example: when the foreign corporate tax rate is one-half of our rate (26 percent against our 52 percent), the combined effective tax on the foreign income (foreign and domestic) works out to only a little over 45 percent. This feature of the foreign tax credit was adopted in the Revenue Act of 1918. No recommendation

has been made to change it, presumably because it has not seemed desirable to increase, directly or through technical changes, the present tax on foreign business income.

A similar treatment of foreign income taxes is suggested in the proposed taxation of income from foreign branches. This is not a necessary or essential part of the program, and is included only to secure similarity with the taxation of income from subsidiaries, along the lines established by the 1918 Revenue Act.

Current Legislation on Foreign Policy: 84th Congress, 1st Session

- Report of the Special Study Mission to Central America on International Organizations and Movements submitted pursuant to H. Res. 91, a resolution authorizing the Committee on Foreign Affairs to conduct thorough studies and investigations of all matters coming within the jurisdiction of such committee. H. Rept. 1155, July 12, 1955. 31 pp.
- Opposing Colonialism and Communist Imperialism. Report to accompany H. Con. Res. 149. S. Rept. 855, July 13, 1955. 2 pp.
- Relative to Inviting Spain To Become a Member of NATO. Report to accompany H. Con. Res. 127. H. Rept. 1174, July 13, 1955. 2 pp.
- Favoring Restoration of Sovereign Rights of Self-Government to Enslaved Peoples of Europe and Asia. Report to accompany S. Res. 127. S. Rept. 854, July 13, 1955. 3 pp.
- Relative to the United Nations Establishing a Procedure for Collecting and Releasing Radiological Information. Report to accompany S. Res. 134. S. Rept. 868, July 14, 1955. 2 pp.
- Philippine Trade Agreement Revision Act of 1955. Report to accompany H. R. 6059. S. Rept. 862, July 14, 1955. 39 pp.
- Fourteenth Semiannual Report on Educational Exchange Activities. Letter from Chairman, United States Advisory Commission on Educational Exchange, transmitting the Fourteenth Semiannual Report on the Educational Exchange Activities conducted from January 1 through June 30, 1955, pursuant to Public Law 402, 80th Congress. H. Doc. 219, July 19, 1955. 14 pp.
- Mutual Security Appropriation Bill, 1956. Report to accompany H. R. 7224. S. Rept. 1033, July 19, 1955. 13 pp.
- Strengthening the Organization of the Department of State. Report to accompany S. 2237. H. Rept. 1260, July 19, 1955. 6 pp.
- Export Sales of CCC Commodities. Report to accompany S. 2170. S. Rept. 1047, July 20, 1955. 3 pp.
- Retirement Income Tax Credit for Armed Forces. Report to accompany H. R. 291. H. Rept. 1288, July 20, 1955. 2 pp.
- Foreign Claims Settlement Commission. Report of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations on H. R. 6382, a bill to amend the International Claims Settlement Act of 1949, as amended, and for other purposes. S. Rept. 1050, July 20, 1955. 28 pp.
- Mexican Farm Labor Act Extension. Report to accompany H. R. 3822. S. Rept. 1045, July 20, 1955. 6 pp.
- International Finance Corporation. Report to accompany S. 1894. H. Rept. 1299, July 20, 1955. 11 pp.

INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AND CONFERENCES

International Cooperation in Meteorology

SECOND CONGRESS OF THE WORLD METEOROLOGICAL ORGANIZATION GENEVA, APRIL 14-MAY 13

by F. W. Reichelderfer

Delegations from 83 member states and territories, 7 nonmember countries, and 11 international organizations assembled at Geneva, Switzerland, on April 14, 1955, for the Second World Meteorological Congress. This general assembly of the World Meteorological Organization reviewed the accomplishments of the Organization since 1951, when the First Congress was held at Paris, and prepared a work program for the next 4 years. The Congress closed on May 13.

The United States was represented by the following delegation:

Chairman and principal delegate

Francis W. Reichelderfer, Chief, U.S. Weather Bureau, Department of Commerce

Vice chairman and delegate

Paul R. Kutschenreuter, Meteorologist, U.S. Weather Bureau, Department of Commerce

Advisers

John R. Abbott, Major, USAF, Chief, ICAO Branch, Directorate of Operations, Headquarters, Air Weather Service, Department of the Air Force

Arthur W. Johnson, Meteorological Attaché, American Consulate General, Geneva

Norman A. Matson, Meteorologist, U.S. Weather Bureau, Department of Commerce

Austen H. Nagle, Executive Assistant to the Deputy Chief, U.S. Weather Bureau, Department of Commerce

Paul B. Taylor, Office of United Nations Political and Security Affairs, Department of State

Charles W. Thornthwaite, Director, Johns Hopkins Laboratory of Climatology, Seabrook, N.J.

Secretary of delegation

Henry F. Nichol, Conference Attaché, Resident U.S. Delegation to International Organizations, Geneva

It has long been recognized that weather influences extend far beyond national boundaries. Cooperation in the international exchange of meteorological reports dates back over 80 years. To facilitate this cooperation, a number of the world's national meteorological services formed the International Meteorological Organization in 1878. This Organization continued until 1951, when its functions, obligations, and resources were taken over by the newly formed World Meteorological Organization, a specialized agency of the United Nations. The First Congress in 1951 established the regulations of the WMO; set up the operating machinery, including the Executive Committee, six regional associations, eight technical commissions, and the secretariat; fixed the budget for the first financial period (1951-55); and approved the policy and program of WMO for that period. The Second Congress, while devoting a good deal of attention to administrative, financial, and legal questions, was able to devote more time to planning a technical program.

Purposes of the WMO

The purposes of the WMO as defined in its convention are as follows:

(a) To facilitate world-wide co-operation in the establish-

ment of networks of stations for the making of meteorological observations or other geophysical observations related to meteorology and to promote the establishment and maintenance of meteorological centres charged with the provision of meteorological services;

(b) To promote the establishment and maintenance of systems for the rapid exchange of weather information;

(c) To promote standardization of meteorological observations and to ensure the uniform publication of observations and statistics;

(d) To further the application of meteorology to aviation, shipping, agriculture, and other human activities; and

(e) To encourage research and training in meteorology and to assist in co-ordinating the international aspects of such research and training.

As a means of promoting international standardization in meteorological observations, reports, analyses, forecasts and warnings, and dissemination of weather information, the Congress adopted international standards and recommended practices in the form of technical regulations. Included in the regulations was the substance of numerous past decisions of the old *Imo*, as well as of the *Wmo*, edited in a consistent form. Members of *Wmo* are obliged either to conform to the international standards or to notify the *Wmo* secretariat of instances of nonconformity and the reasons therefor. These differences will be published for the information of other members, not only to draw attention to the differences and thereby encourage efforts to bring national practices into line with the standards but also to provide other members and users of meteorological services with necessary facts concerning actual practices so that they can effectively use these services.

In recognition of the need for development of meteorological services in underdeveloped areas, consideration was given to the development and management of technical assistance programs. The *Wmo* participates in the U.N. Expanded Program of Technical Assistance, and the budget for meteorological projects under this program had grown to a modest \$150,000 by the beginning of the Second Congress. Available information indicated a potential demand for assistance much in excess of funds likely to be provided under this program and, in some instances, for assistance of a nature which did not fit the criteria of the program. Consideration was therefore given to establishment of an "operational and technical development fund," and a token figure was included in the *Wmo* budget to enable the Executive Com-

mittee to authorize assistance in a few particularly meritorious cases not covered by the U.N. program. The Third Congress will be in a position to appraise the merit of this form of assistance by *Wmo* on the basis of experience.

International Geophysical Year

Delegations at the Second Congress regarded the forthcoming International Geophysical Year (1957-58) as an outstanding opportunity to advance meteorology by obtaining hitherto unavailable facts about the atmosphere. The *Wmo* works closely with the International Union for Geodesy and Geophysics in developing plans for a meteorological program for the *Igy*. Emphasis is given in the plans to obtaining observations which will contribute most to our knowledge of the general circulation of the atmosphere. Delegations were concerned that all data obtained be published and available for research. Accordingly the Congress directed the Executive Committee to work out a plan whereby the *Wmo* secretariat would act as an international center for the essential meteorological observation data and for meteorological bibliography and documentation for the International Geophysical Year.

The Second Congress approved in broad terms a technical program for the next 4 years which includes study and improvement of meteorological codes and communications; assistance in the water resource development program of the United Nations; collaboration with *Unesco* in arid zone and humid tropics research; continuing survey of artificial control of weather processes; preparation of manuals and guides in the fields of climatology, agricultural meteorology, synoptic meteorology, and aeronautical meteorology; preparation of uniform specifications for climatological atlases; provision of bibliographic services; and international comparisons of upper-air sounding equipment and methods.

Annual Budget

To carry out the foregoing program the Congress authorized a maximum expenditure of \$1,700,000 for the second financial period (1956-59), or an average annual budget of \$425,000. Provision was made for a strengthened secretariat and for additional assistance to the 50-odd technical working groups, the regional associations, and the technical commissions of the *Wmo*. The

Congress decided to continue to rely on the voluntary assistance of members in such matters as supplying the services of specialists to study technical problems and providing host facilities for conferences.

No significant changes were made in the structure or mode of operation of the Wmo, but the general regulations were substantially revised to make them more workable and to remove provisions which had caused a certain amount of confusion, obstruction, and delay in the proving period since the First Congress. Proposals to change the structure of the technical commissions, to expand the size of the Executive Committee, and to clarify the intent of the convention as to the voting rights of members were referred to the Executive Committee for study and subsequent recommendation to members or to the Third Congress.

Near the end of the session, André Viaut, Director of the Meteorological Service of France, was elected President of the Wmo, to serve through the Third Congress. He succeeded Dr. F. W. Reichelderfer of the United States. It was decided that the next Congress should be held at Geneva in 1959.

The continuing objective of the United States in participating in the Wmo is to help make it an efficient and effective instrument for international cooperation in meteorology and for improvement of meteorological services. As we continue to extend the period of our weather forecasts, the areas which they cover, and the purposes which they serve, effective cooperation in this field will increasingly serve our national interests.

• *Dr. Reichelderfer, author of the above article, is chief of the U.S. Weather Bureau, Department of Commerce.*

Supplementary Agenda Items for Tenth General Assembly¹

U.N. doc. A/2042 dated August 29

1. Application, under the auspices of the United Nations, of the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples in the case of the population of the Island of Cyprus: item proposed by Greece
2. The question of Morocco: item proposed by Afghanistan, Burma, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq,

¹ For provisional agenda, see BULLETIN of Aug. 29, 1955, p. 363.

Lebanon, Liberia, Pakistan, the Philippines, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Thailand and Yemen

3. The question of Algeria: item proposed by Afghanistan, Burma, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Liberia, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Thailand and Yemen
4. Co-ordination of information relating to the effects of atomic radiation upon human health and safety: item proposed by the United States of America
5. The question of West Irian (West New Guinea): item proposed by Afghanistan, Burma, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Liberia, Pakistan, the Philippines, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Thailand and Yemen
6. Progress in developing international co-operation for the peaceful uses of atomic energy; reports of Governments: item proposed by the United States of America
7. Establishment and maintenance of a United Nations Memorial Cemetery in Korea: item proposed by Australia, Belgium, Canada, Colombia, Ethiopia, France, Greece, the Netherlands, New Zealand, the Philippines, the Union of South Africa, Thailand, Turkey, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United States of America
8. The question of the safety of commercial aircraft flying in the vicinity of, or inadvertently crossing, international frontiers: item proposed by Israel
9. (a) Reports of the Neutral Nations Repatriation Commission in Korea; (b) Problem of ex-prisoners of the Korean war: items proposed by India
10. Advisory services in the field of human rights (Economic and Social Council resolution 586 (XX) of 29 July 1955)
11. Draft convention on the nationality of married women (Economic and Social Council resolution 587 (XX) of 3 August 1955)

Conference on Conservation of North Pacific Fur Seals

Press release 525 dated September 1

The Department of State announced on September 1 that the Governments of Canada, Japan, and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics have accepted invitations from the U.S. Government to attend a conference to negotiate a treaty for the conservation of the fur seals of the North Pacific Ocean. The conference will open in Washington on November 28, 1955.

From 1911 to 1941 the seal herds were protected by the fur-seal treaty signed in 1911 by the United States, Great Britain, Japan, and Russia. So successful was this treaty in rehabilitating the seals that in 1941 Japan, as permitted by the treaty's provisions, terminated it on the ground that the animals had become so numerous as to harm Japanese fisheries. Since 1942 the United States and Canada have by agreement protected the Pribilof

herd in the northeastern Pacific waters. The purpose of the coming conference will be to extend multilateral protection again over all fur seals of the North Pacific.

The fur seals resort for breeding purposes to three Pacific island groups. These are the Pribilof Islands off Alaska, the Commander Islands off Siberia, and Robben Island, north of Japan. For 9 months of the year the seals are at sea, dispersing themselves over wide areas of the Pacific north of the latitudes of southern California and central Japan, and during this time the herds from the three rookeries intermingle to some extent. At the time of the 1911 convention they were faced with virtual extermination because of com-

mercial sealers who hunted them on the high seas. By the terms of the 1911 treaty, pelagic sealing (hunting seals at sea) was prohibited.

As a result of the 1911 treaty and of the management program of the U.S. Government, the Pribilof herd has increased from about 125,000 animals in 1911 to 1,500,000 at present. During these 40-odd years more than 1,850,000 skins have been taken on the Pribilof Islands from male animals surplus to the breeding requirement of this highly polygamous species. The Government-operated fur-seal industry is administered by the Fish and Wildlife Service of the Department of the Interior and is financed entirely out of receipts from the sale of sealskins.

Inspection as the Key to Disarmament

Statement by Henry Cabot Lodge, Jr.

U.S. Representative on the U.N. Disarmament Commission¹

The United States welcomes you cordially to our country for the opening of this 51st session of our subcommittee.

We also welcome you to share in a great opportunity—the greatest which has yet confronted the subcommittee.

This opportunity is due to the fact that this meeting is the first since the conference in Geneva last month of the four Heads of Government—France, the U.S.S.R., the United Kingdom, and the United States. This was the first time in 10 years that such a meeting had taken place. The first test of the practical value of this Geneva meeting—as the President said in Denver today—is here in the subcommittee on the issue of finding a solution to the disarmament problem. It is hard to imagine anything more important.

At Geneva, President Eisenhower said this:

I propose that we take a practical step, that we begin an arrangement, very quickly, as between ourselves—immediately. These steps would include:

¹ Made before the Commission's Subcommittee of Five (Canada, France, United Kingdom, United States, U.S.S.R.) at U.N. Headquarters on Aug. 29 (U.S./U.N. press release 2198).

To give to each other a complete blueprint of our military establishments, from beginning to end, from one end of our countries to the other; lay out the establishments and provide the blueprints to each other.

Next, to provide within our countries facilities for aerial photography to the other country—we to provide you the facilities within our country, ample facilities for aerial reconnaissance, where you can make all the pictures you choose and take them to your own country to study; you to provide exactly the same facilities for us and we to make these examinations—and by this step to convince the world that we are providing as between ourselves against the possibility of great surprise attack, thus lessening danger and relaxing tension. Likewise we will make more easily attainable a comprehensive and effective system of inspection and disarmament, because what I propose, I assure you, would be but a beginning.

We believe accordingly that the heart of the disarmament problem is inspection, that no nation—not the United States, not the Soviet Union, nor any other nation—can afford to cut its strength under an international agreement unless and until an inspection system is created which will support every portion of such an agreement and upon which humanity can rely.

President Eisenhower's proposal was made with all the strength and sincerity and hope of the 160

million Americans for whom he spoke. It voiced his belief that fear and suspicion have blocked progress on the inspection problem and that this distrust was not one-sided. He searched his heart and mind for some proposal which would commend itself to both sides and particularly to the two great countries which possess large numbers of nuclear weapons, which in turn give rise to the fears and dangers of surprise attack. He believed that if the United States and the Soviet Union, within the framework of the United Nations, could agree to try out one initial, simple, practical, and significant operation of initial inspection this would be the crucial step toward a comprehensive and worldwide plan for the limitation and reduction of armaments and assurance against a world war.

The President's Plan

The Heads of Government at Geneva instructed their representatives in this subcommittee to consider the proposals made at Geneva by each of them.² I do, therefore, here and now present President Eisenhower's plan to this body with the complete text of the words spoken by him on July 21.³ This text is being distributed by the Secretariat.

The word "blueprint" in the President's plan includes, first, the identification, strength, command structure, and disposition of personnel, units, and equipment of all major land, sea, and air forces, including organized reserve and paramilitary; second, a complete list of military plants, facilities, and installations with their locations.

No nation, of course, could furnish such information without assurances of complete reciprocity and of simultaneous delivery of similar types of information. There must be effective means for verifying the reports of the participating states by air, ground, and sea observation.

In implementation of the aerial photography in the President's plan, each country would permit unrestricted but monitored aerial reconnaissance by the other country.

In order to provide fully against major surprise assault, the United States believes that the plan should provide particularly for safeguards against attack by long-range striking forces of both countries through observation and inspection of these

² BULLETIN of Aug. 1, 1955, p. 177.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 173.

Statement by the President

White House Office (Denver) press release dated August 29

Of the actual decisions reached at Geneva, the first to be put to practical test is the decision to renew talks on limitations of armaments.

Today, in New York City, the subcommittee of the United Nations Disarmament Committee is meeting to continue these discussions, pursuant to a directive from the four Heads of Government issued at their final session at Geneva.

I sincerely trust that the subcommittee meeting will be marked by the same spirit of frankness and cooperation which typified the meetings at Geneva. If this is so, then I am sure that the subcommittee work, in the end, can produce practical results that should lead to an easing of the tensions and the heavy burdens of armament that the world is presently carrying.

forces and their support, and through measures to detect preparation for such an attack. The United States believes further that the exchange of information under the President's plan should proceed in progressive stages from the least sensitive aspects to the more sensitive, covering those items most likely to provide against the possibility of surprise.

Further details will be supplied to you concerning the methods by which mutual aerial reconnaissance would be conducted. Among other things, each inspecting country would utilize its own aircraft and related equipment, including visual, photographic, and electronic means of observation. Personnel of the country being inspected would be aboard each reconnaissance aircraft during all over-flights.

The United States contemplates that the lists of military installations which are exchanged would include the designation of one or more airfields or bases which would be made available for the support of reconnaissance aircraft and crews.

There would be provision for adequate communication facilities, as required for rapid and direct reports by observers to their home governments.

Each government would arrange to designate ports of entry and egress for observers and aircraft; to clear observers, aircraft, and crews to and from home territory; and to check and identify personnel and equipment engaged in these operations.

Each country being inspected would be respon-

sible for air traffic control of inspecting aircraft.

The United States is prepared to submit a paper setting forth in more details the manner in which all these operations should be carried out. The details, of course, are negotiable. We are prepared to join with other governments in studying all aspects of the plan.

The summary which I have just given is to be considered only in the context of and as an integral part of such a paper.

The plan which I have described obviously involves far-reaching undertakings for the participating states. The American people will, I am sure, gladly accept their share of the burdens of an equitable plan which will in all truth add greatly to world security and which will brighten the prospects of a durable and just peace by limiting the dangers of surprise attack, thus opening the way to a general agreement on the regulation and reduction of armaments.

Need for Early Beginning

The world anticipates that before this body adjourns it will make an early beginning on this important plan and that all of us here will show our intention to contribute to its execution and extension of it to our own establishments and territories on a reciprocal and appropriate basis. We in the United States are prepared to put the plan immediately into effect as between ourselves and the Soviet Union.

We shall propose that the Disarmament Commission and the General Assembly record their support of this plan in simple, unmistakable language and that the report which the Commission makes shall be equally clear to the peoples of the world who have the great stake in the vital issues of peace and war.

We shall also be prepared to present further measures by which the United States believes mankind's yearnings for a lessening of the tensions which flow in part from huge growing armaments can be achieved.

For these deliberations, the President of the United States appointed a distinguished American, Harold E. Stassen, as deputy U.S. representative. I welcome him here in his official capacity, as a fellow member of the Cabinet, and as a friend of many years.

Mr. Chairman, this session of the subcommittee affords an unprecedented opportunity for service

to the peoples of our countries and to the other nations of the world. If we all make the most of the opportunity which we confront here today, these subcommittee meetings will stand in history as a major milestone in humanity's advance.

U.S. Delegations to International Conferences

International Civil Aviation Organization

H. Alberta Colclaser, Chief of Air Transport Relations of the Aviation Division of the Department of State, represented the United States at the meeting of the Committee on Rules for the Settlement of Differences of the International Civil Aviation Organization which convened at The Hague on August 31.

Following the committee meeting, ICAO convened a diplomatic conference on September 6 to conclude a protocol of amendment to the Warsaw Convention at which the United States was represented by the following delegation:

U.S. representatives

G. Nathan Calkins, Jr., *Chairman*, Chief, International Rules Division, General Counsel's Office, Civil Aeronautics Board

Robert P. Boyle, General Counsel, Civil Aeronautics Administration

H. Alberta Colclaser, Chief, Air Transport Relations, Aviation Division, Department of State

Adviser

Stuart G. Tipton, General Counsel, Air Transport Association of America

Timber Committee, Economic Commission for Europe

The Department of State announced on August 25 (press release 515) that John P. Weyerhaeuser, Jr., Tacoma, Wash., has been designated the U.S. delegate to the 13th session of the Timber Committee of the U.N. Economic Commission for Europe (ECE) to be held at Geneva, September 13-17, 1955.

The Timber Committee is one of the principal subsidiary organs established by the ECE. The ECE and the Food and Agriculture Organization work closely together on timber questions. In the ECE Timber Committee importers and exporters regularly review the timber situation and forecast wood requirements and supplies so as to promote market stability.

At the 13th session, delegates will present statements concerning the development of consumption, production, and trade in 1955, together with prospects for 1956, in the three timber categories—sawn softwood, pitprops, and pulpwood. A joint FAO/ECE progress report on work undertaken in the field of forest-working techniques and training of forest workers will be submitted to the committee, as well as a joint report on a study aimed to examine to what extent other materials are used as substitutes for timber for construction, packaging, and other end uses in European countries, and the impact of this substitution on Europe's timber requirements. A document will also be presented informing the committee of matters discussed and decisions taken at the 10th session of the ECE in March 1955 which are relevant to the committee's activities, including the program of work for 1955-56 in the field of timber as considered and approved by the Commission.

Current U.N. Documents: A Selected Bibliography¹

General Assembly

International Law Commission. Regime of the Territorial Sea. Working paper prepared by the Secretariat. A/CN.4/L.54, May 13, 1955. 20 pp. mimeo.

Proposal to call a General Conference of the members of the United Nations for the purpose of reviewing the Charter. Note by the Secretary-General. A/2919, July 25, 1955. 1 p. mimeo.

Supplementary list of items for the agenda of the tenth regular session of the General Assembly: item proposed by Greece. Application, under the auspices of the United Nations, of the principle of equal rights and self-determination of peoples in the case of the population of the Island of Cyprus. Letter dated 23 July 1955 from the Permanent Representative of Greece to the United Nations addressed to the Secretary-General. A/2920, July 25, 1955. 1 p. mimeo.

Supplementary list of items for the agenda of the tenth regular session of the General Assembly: item proposed by Afghanistan, Burma, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Thailand and Yemen. The Question of Algeria. Letter dated 26 July 1955 addressed to the Secretary-General by the Permanent Representatives of Afghanistan, Burma, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Thailand and Yemen to the United Nations. A/2924, July 29, 1955. 5 pp. mimeo.

Supplementary list of items for the agenda of the tenth regular session of the General Assembly: item proposed by Afghanistan, Burma, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Iran,

¹ Printed materials may be secured in the United States from the International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, N. Y. Other materials (mimeographed or processed documents) may be consulted at certain designated libraries in the United States.

Iraq, Lebanon, Pakistan, the Philippines, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Thailand and Yemen. The Question of Morocco. Letter dated 26 July 1955 addressed to the Secretary-General by the Permanent Representatives of Afghanistan, Burma, Egypt, India, Indonesia, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, Pakistan, the Philippines, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Thailand and Yemen to the United Nations. A/2923, July 29, 1955. 6 pp. mimeo.

TREATY INFORMATION

Current Actions

MULTILATERAL

Bills of Lading

International convention for unification of certain rules relating to bills of lading, and protocol of signature. Dated at Brussels August 25, 1924. Entered into force June 2, 1931. 51 Stat. 233.

Accession deposited (with reservations): Australia (valid also with respect to territories of Papua and Norfolk and trust territories of New Guinea and Nauru), July 4, 1955.

Copyright

Universal copyright convention. Done at Geneva September 6, 1952. Enters into force September 16, 1955.

Accession deposited: Philippines, August 19, 1955.

Protocol 1 concerning application of the convention to the works of stateless persons and refugees. Done at Geneva September 6, 1952. Enters into force September 16, 1955.

Accession deposited: Philippines, August 19, 1955.

Protocol 2 concerning application of the convention to the works of certain international organizations. Done at Geneva September 6, 1952. Enters into force September 16, 1955.

Accession deposited: Philippines, August 19, 1955.

Protocol 3 concerning the effective date of instruments of ratification or acceptance of or accession to the convention. Done at Geneva September 6, 1952. Entered into force August 19, 1954; for the United States December 6, 1954.

Accession deposited: Philippines, August 19, 1955.

Cultural Relations

Convention for the promotion of inter-American cultural relations. Signed at Caracas March 28, 1954. Entered into force February 18, 1955.¹

Ratification deposited: Ecuador, August 11, 1955.

Finance

Articles of Agreement of the International Monetary Fund. Opened for signature at Washington December 27, 1945. Entered into force December 27, 1945. TIAS 1501.

Signature and acceptance: Korea, August 26, 1955.

Articles of Agreement of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development. Opened for signature at Washington December 27, 1945. Entered into force December 27, 1945. TIAS 1502.

Signature and acceptance: Korea, August 26, 1955.

¹ Not in force for the United States.

Germany

Charter of the arbitral commission on property, rights and interests in Germany (annex to convention on the settlement of matters arising out of the war and the occupation, signed at Bonn May 26, 1952, as amended by the protocol on the termination of the occupation regime signed at Paris October 23, 1954).

Accession deposited: Italy, July 27, 1955.

Narcotic Drugs

Protocol for limiting and regulating the cultivation of the poppy plant, the production of, international and wholesale trade in, and use of opium. Dated at New York June 23, 1953.²

Ratification deposited: Ecuador, August 17, 1955.

North Atlantic Treaty

Agreement between the parties to the North Atlantic Treaty for co-operation regarding atomic information. Signed at Paris June 22, 1955 by all parties to the North Atlantic Treaty. Enters into force when the United States has received notifications from all parties that they are bound by the terms of the agreement.

Notification by: Luxembourg, July 23, 1955.

Peace Treaties

Agreement for the settlement of disputes arising under article 15 (a) of the treaty of peace with Japan. Opened for signature at Washington June 12, 1952. TIAS 2550.

Ratification deposited: Iraq, August 18, 1955. Entered into force for Iraq August 18, 1955.

Salvage

Convention for the unification of certain rules with respect to assistance and salvage at sea. Signed at Brussels September 23, 1910. Entered into force March 1, 1913. 37 Stat. 1658.

Adherence deposited: Turkey, July 4, 1955.

Shipping

International load line convention. Signed at London July 5, 1930. 47 Stat. 2228.

Accessions deposited: Venezuela, December 30, 1954; Turkey, May 20, 1955; Czechoslovakia, June 18, 1955.

Slave Trade

Protocol amending slavery convention signed at Geneva September 25, 1926 (46 Stat. 2183), and annex. Done at New York December 7, 1953.³

Acceptance deposited: Ecuador, August 17, 1955.

Telecommunications

International telecommunication convention. Signed at Buenos Aires December 22, 1952. Entered into force January 1, 1954.

Ratifications deposited: India, July 25, 1955; Germany, July 26, 1955.

BILATERAL

Bolivia

Agreement for establishment of Bolivian-American cooperative road service, pursuant to the general agreement for technical cooperation of March 14, 1951 (TIAS 2221). Signed at La Paz August 3, 1955. Entered into force August 3, 1955.

² Not in force.

³ Not in force for the United States.

Italy

Convention for the avoidance of double taxation and the prevention of fiscal evasion with respect to taxes on income. Signed at Washington March 30, 1955.

Ratified by the President: August 22, 1955.

Convention for the avoidance of double taxation and the prevention of fiscal evasion with respect to taxes on estates and inheritances. Signed at Washington March 30, 1955.

Ratified by the President: August 22, 1955.

Netherlands

Protocol supplementing the convention for the avoidance of double taxation and the prevention of fiscal evasion with respect to taxes on income and certain other taxes of April 29, 1948 (TIAS 1855) for the purpose of facilitating extension to the Netherlands Antilles. Signed at Washington June 15, 1955.

Ratified by the President: August 24, 1955.

THE DEPARTMENT

Recess Appointments

Samuel C. Waugh as Deputy Under Secretary for Economic Affairs, August 25.

Designations

Robert R. Bowie as Assistant Secretary for Policy Planning, effective August 11. (Mr. Bowie will continue to serve as Director of the Policy Planning Staff and to represent the Department of State as a member of the Planning Board of the National Security Council.)

Isaac W. Carpenter, Jr., as Assistant Secretary—Controller, effective August 12.

FOREIGN SERVICE

Consular Offices

The Department announced on August 19 that it had approved the establishment of consular districts in Austria as follows:

Vienna—the provinces of Vienna, Burgenland, Lower Austria, and Styria;

Salzburg—the provinces of Vorarlberg, Tyrol, Salzburg, Upper Austria, and Carinthia.

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Check List of Department of State Press Releases: August 29-September 4

Releases may be obtained from the News Division, Department of State, Washington 25, D. C.
Press releases issued prior to August 29 which appear in this issue of the BULLETIN are Nos. 514, 515, and 516 of August 25.

No.	Date	Subject
518	8/30	Dulles: Post-Geneva spirit.
519	8/30	Dulles: Arab-Israel dispute.
520	8/31	Tripartite Foreign Ministers meeting.
521	8/31	Eleanor Dulles: "Concerted Efforts Against Tyranny."
522	8/31	Parole of Japanese war criminals.
523	8/31	Joint U.S.-Japanese statement.
524	9/1	Murphy: "Current Aspects of U.S.-Canadian Relations."
525	9/1	North Pacific Fur Seal Conference.
†526	9/1	Restriction on Hungarian information activities.
†527	9/2	Foreign Relations volume.
528	9/2	Relief wheat to Libya.

†Held for a later issue of the BULLETIN.

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